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ABSTRACT

Published as a stimulus to further studies in comparative education and comparative adult education, this book is an English edition of most of the papers presented in June 1978, at an international seminar held in West Berlin on "The Universities and Adult Education: Trends and Perspectives in Europe." The introduction, by Wolfgang Kruger, provides an overview of Adult Education and a mini-summary of the status of adult education in eleven countries. He supplies a rationale for studies in comparative education, profiles the development of adult education in Europe, and predicts future trends in the field for both traditional university studies and new forms of study for adults. Following the introduction, papers reviewing the status of adult education are presented for the following countries: Austria, Denmark, France, West Germany, Great Britain, Italy, Norway, Poland, Sweden, Switzerland, and Yugoslavia. A list of authors' addresses is included. (KC)

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The Universities and Adult Education in Europe

Jindra Kulich
and
Wolfgang Krüger
Editors

CE 027 063

U.S. DEPARTMENT OF HEALTH, EDUCATION & WELFARE
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FOREWORD

Interest in the comparative study of adult education has been growing in many parts of the world since the first conference on comparative adult education held at Exeter, U.S.A. in 1966. This interest was given further impetus by meetings held at Pugwash, Canada in 1970, Nordborg, Denmark in 1972, and Nairobi, Kenya in 1975.

A number of international organizations, among these Unesco, the International Bureau of Education, the International Congress of University Adult Education, the European Bureau of Adult Education, O.E.C.D., the European Centre for Leisure and Education, the Council of Europe, and the International Council for Adult Education have contributed their share.

A growing number of universities in all five continents established courses in comparative adult education. Many other universities encourage students to deal with comparative study or with the study of adult education abroad in major papers and theses. The literature in this area has increased considerably since the early 1960's both in support and as a result of this university activity. A number of valuable bibliographies were published, cataloguing the growing wealth of materials available in a number of languages.

Most of the literature available on adult education in various countries can still be found primarily in articles scattered throughout adult education and science journals, while most of the truly comparative studies remain unpublished master's theses or doctoral dissertations. With the exception of the

project of the European Centre for Leisure and Education, there is no publisher enticing researchers to submit manuscripts of monographs dealing with comparative adult education and case studies of adult education in various countries, even though the need for such a publishing venture was stressed at a number of international meetings.

It is with the intent to provide such service to the discipline and the field of adult education that the Centre for Continuing Education at The University of British Columbia, in cooperation with the International Council for Adult Education, decided to publish a series of Monographs on Comparative and Area Studies in Adult Education. We are pleased to present The Universities and Adult Education in Europe as a sixth volume in the series.

This volume is an English edition of most of the papers presented in June of 1978 at an international seminar held in West Berlin on "The Universities and Adult Education: Trends and Perspectives in Europe" and published in German under the title Universität and Erwachsenenbildung in Europa.[1] The seminar was sponsored jointly by the European Academy in Berlin and the Working Group for University Adult Education in the Federal Republic of Germany. This monograph is the first publication in English dealing with the European universities and adult education since the 1963 publication of The European Universities and Adult Education.[2]

Jindra Kulich
General Editor

[1] Wolfgang Krüger (Ed.), Universität und Erwachsenenbildung in Europa, (Theorie and Praxis der Erwachsenenbildung), Braunschweig, Westermann, 1978, 230 p.

[2] The European Universities and Adult Education, Oslo, Universitetetsforlaget, 1963, 112 p.

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Wolfgang Krüger Jindra Kulich

UNIVERSITY AND ADULT EDUCATION
TENDENCIES AND FUTURE PROSPECTS IN EUROPE

Wolfgang Krüger

Introduction

The theme of this collection of papers is the role of the universities in adult education in various European countries and the interaction of university and adult education. It examines in some detail an area where two levels of education overlap and within which in recent years a process of change has occurred which sometimes makes it difficult to maintain a clear-cut distinction between the post-secondary level and the adult level. International comparison shows that the universities are fulfilling two functions. They offer initial studies to a group of young students selected on the basis of their achievements in school; to an increasing degree, however, the universities also are undertaking the additional function of adult education by virtue of:

(1) their own course offerings within the framework of adult education programmes which are not primarily related to a final degree or qualification;
(2) changes in admission requirements and reforms in the organization of studies which enable employed persons to undertake more part-time study; and
(3) an increase in non-credit courses for persons who already have a degree.

These activities which, despite individual variations in thematic emphasis, are the main topic of most of the papers on individual countries in this volume, constitute an area where the specific functions of university education and adult education overlap. From the point of view of function, i.e. adult training and continuing education, the above-mentioned types of course offerings belong within the sphere of adult education. From the structural point of view, however, they fall within the post-secondary level. This development is due in particular to dynamic changes within the field of post-secondary education, the background to which will be discussed later in this study.

An additional element in the specific relationship between the university and adult education is (1) the university training and upgrading of adult educators and (2) university research in adult education. These questions will be discussed within the context of each individual country when describing the overall situation in university adult education. These fields of enquiry are so complex that they require independent comparative analysis. Since this has been initiated elsewhere, these questions can play a subordinate role in the present study.[1]

In national and international discussion of adult education the areas where university and adult education converge are alluded to by the collective term university adult education. This term has achieved a measure of international currency, i.e. has become a kind of international convention, which has led to the founding of the International Congress on University Adult Education and, in the Federal Republic of Germany, to the establishment of the Working Group for University Adult Education. This terminology is retained in the present publication because it reflects some progress in view of the difficulty in achieving uniform terminology within the field of adult education at the national and international level.* However, reference should be made to two disadvantages of this term. On the one hand it

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* In the English edition the terms adult education and continuing education have been used as interchangeable.

is semantically ambiguous, i.e. it is misleading, for example, to call the training of the personnel involved in adult education at a university, university adult education. In addition, particularly in an international comparative analysis such as this, it must be pointed out that the term university adult education has not found international acceptance in discussions of education policy at the university level.

In this introductory paper an attempt will be made in the following to place this topic within the wider context of studies in comparative education or research in comparative adult education. Following this the historical determinants and current factors in educational policy will be described, as well as contemporary structures and trends in university adult education in Europe.

A European Comparison of Education Systems: Why and How?

The aim of this monograph is to further studies in comparative education and comparative adult education. No attempt has been made to restrict discussion to one of these two areas of comparative research. As was indicated above, university adult education plays a role almost exclusively in the discussion of adult education as such, which justifies its inclusion within the field of comparative adult education. On the other hand, the university and adult education themselves constitute two subordinate areas within a specific education system, so that a comparison should fall within the broader context of studies in education itself. However, there is the additional factor that the methodology of comparative education and of comparative adult education are almost identical, since comparative adult education, as the more recent off-shoot discipline within the broader field of comparative education, still bases itself mainly on this parent discipline, which itself is relatively young.[2]

Any attempt to undertake an international comparison of education systems, in this case of university adult education in Europe, raises the question of the real purpose of such a

comparison and of the most productive methodology to utilise.

Those who are active in comparative adult education in the Federal Republic of Germany see in such studies the following advantages for research, teaching and the practical work in the field of adult education: an awareness is achieved of procedures and reforms in educational policy in other countries; hence a tendency towards provincialism is avoided and the potentialities for the adoption of parallel or uniform measures are created.[3] In terms of the practices in adult education it is, however, often difficult to follow developments in education on the international scene and to compare one's own field of activity with those in the international context.

The possibility of achieving a degree of uniformity in structures e.g. within the European context, on the basis of comparative studies, must also be regarded with some scepticism. At any rate to date in Europe comparative adult education has made scarcely any contribution to the achievement of this goal. One reason for this is that, as a recent subordinate discipline within the wider discipline of adult education, it has been primarily concerned with instrumental and methodological problems of comparison. Another reason is that hitherto in Europe there has been no practical conception of a cooperative federalist European education policy, whose goal it would be, despite all national and local differences in education systems, to prevent a further drifting apart[4] and within the framework of which the study of comparative adult education could achieve new comprehension of its own goals in the field of educational policy.

The problem of research methods or tools is closely related to the problem of the goals and purposes of comparative studies. A methodological approach such as that adopted by the European Centre for Leisure and Education in Prague, in its UNESCO supported project of a synopsis of European adult education, aims at a structural comparison. In order to achieve this comparison indicator lists are used, with the help of which existing national studies are evaluated.[5] The goal is to arrive at a network of data relating to adult education structures in

Europe. Initially this will be only of an approximate nature but it is hoped that it will provide information about general trends in adult education. At the same time it is intended to create the basis for an understanding which transcends national borders and which in turn is to make possible educational planning at the national level, but also however specifically within the European group of nations. From this point of view a synopsis of European adult education may well increase in importance as a medium term planning tool in the achievement of a federalist European educational policy.

Although it is not our intention to question the possible value of this kind of structural comparison, we nevertheless must draw attention to the limitations of this approach. The failure to compare the educational concepts and aims of individual national adult education systems represents a considerable deficiency in qualitative statements about both the processes and the efforts to achieve reforms in individual countries and their social and pedagogical basis. A comparison of structures utilising operational criteria, for example, one between adult education in Sweden and Italy, may show considerable difference between these two countries. The national background to contemporary structures in adult education becomes evident only when the relationship between any given political culture and existing structures are included within the comparison. In a comparison betweeen East and West in Europe it is considerably more difficult to demonstrate what can be shown relatively simply in the example selected above through the difference between an uninterrupted state policy of reform, on the one hand, and the more erratic development in Italy, on the other hand, which relates to a situation characterized by the particular trade union policy and by social and political conflicts. This is why in the work on a European synopsis in adult education, mentioned above, in which Eastern and Western states are participating, controversial questions such as causal factors involved in social and educational theory have to be avoided because of the need to reach a consensus which transcends

ideological barriers.

Hence it seems all the more necessary to encourage the analysis of partial areas within the educational systems in addition to the comparison of overall structures. One such self-contained partial area is university adult education. However, developments specific to individual countries, social and political background factors, processes of reform and the structural conditions within this field can be described in their complexity only within monographs devoted to each individual country, such as the papers contained in the present volume. At the core of the present European comparisons of university adult education are the origins of university adult education which, within the international context, have historically common roots, as well as the background to contemporary development trends which in this field are common to more than one country. These are viewed within the context of the process of change produced by the crisis within the university itself and will be discussed in greater detail in the following.

The Development of University Adult Education in Europe

Historical and International Relationships

The collaboration between the university and adult education institutions in individual countries has traditionally manifested many international relationships. In this field a phenomenon often occurred which is rare from the point of view of historical comparison, namely the adoption of ideas, structures and forms by one country from another. University adult education, which is found in a variety of forms in most European and non-European countries, again and again modelled itself on the development in England.[6] British university adult education has been (and remains today) a worthwhile object of study for generations of university students and adult educators. The unique historical development in the relationship between the university and adult education in Great Britain has had an international influence in

its continuity on both the theory and practice of university adult education. In Great Britain this relationship extended from the beginnings of the university extension early in the last century. This was a dynamic development which originated within the universities themselves; by establishing new universities and popularizing university courses, it attempted to enable a greater number of persons to study at university level after having completed preparatory courses. This development was continued by the establishment of the Workers' Educational Association in 1903, which from its inception collaborated with the universities and led to the establishment of tutorial classes, and the stablishment of extra-mural departments at the beginning of the twenties, a development which was intensified in the thirties with the goal of achieving general adult education both within the university and outside it.[7] This development has influenced the idea and realization of university adult education world-wide. In the late nineteenth century, in areas within the direct sphere of influence of England, which was then still a world power, the example of England served as a model, e.g. in the USA, Australia and India, even though independent developments soon took place in these countries. In Europe, at least the people's universities in Scandinavia and in particular in Denmark were inspired by English university adult education, even if a different form of organisation was chosen. In corresponding developments within Europe there was a direct or indirect relationship to the English model. This also applies to the popularizing university courses which became widespread throughout Germany and Austria since the 1890's.[8]

Much later, after 1945, under conditions which were exceptional in the history of education, i.e. under the direct political influence of Great Britain, the British example of university adult education had a further influence on the German development. The political influence of victorious Great Britain on adult education, particularly in Lower Saxony, did not, however, lead to the compulsory adoption of the British model and structures. Instead, as F. Borinski states in a review of the influence of

Great Britain on the rebuilding of the education system in Germany: "The initiative was again taken by the Germans but they followed the example and the advice of the British."[9]

By this initiative he means the Commission at Goettingen University whose work led to collaboration between the university and people's universities in Lower Saxony and the establishment of seminar courses at Goettingen University in 1955. The importance of these for the further development of university adult education in the Federal Republic of Germany will be discussed by H.D. Raapke within the present volume.

The traditional forms of university participation in adult education, the origins of which within the international context were outlined here, constitute one thread which is present in almost all the following papers devoted to individual countries. The conditions under which the second aspect of university adult education came into being -- new forms of courses for adults offered by the universities -- will be examined in the following with reference to the crisis in post-secondary education.

The University and Adult Education against the Background of Crisis in Post-Secondary Education and the Discussion of Recurrent Education

In most European and non-European industrial countries the integration of one sector within an educational system with another is so close-knit that, for example, problems in the labour market or developments and changes in one particular area of the education system have an immediate effect on other areas of education and an indirect effect on the entire education system. This is particularly important for work in the field of educational planning and reform. Today it is impossible, for example, to conduct successful experiments in pre-school education unless they are coordinated with and related to factors affecting primary schooling. The German comprehensive school is a classical example of a pedagogical concept which, in terms of structure and organization extends over more than one stage of the system. Models aimed at linking university entrance examination and vocational training in a comprehensive secondary stage aim at

the intermeshing of levels within the education system.[10] As the description of the situation in Italy, Yugoslavia and Sweden in this volume show, reforms which aim at unifying the secondary school system had a considerable impact on the post-secondary level, which was exposed to a flood of students applying for admission to university; as a result post-secondary institutions were forced to undergo reforms in the system of study as well as organisational reforms.

In recent years adult education has reacted relatively rapidly and extensively to the problems in the labour market and in the education system. Today adult education in the Federal Republic of Germany, in addition to fulfilling its independent educational function, has assumed compensatory functions with reference to structurally caused problems, i.e. opportunities of which individuals failed to avail themselves in their youth; it has assumed the compensatory function by virtue of its course offerings which make it possible to take university examinations after leaving school. This applies particularly to the subsequent passing of the university entrance examination.

As was indicated earlier, both from the historical point of view and within the international context, the relationships between the universities and adult education are numerous. Above and beyond the specific national developments, the so-called crisis of the university and the simultaneous discussion of forms of recurrent education have had the most persistent influence on the relationship between the post-secondary level and adult education.

At no other level of the education system are parallels in problems and the attempts to solve them as evident as amongst Europe's universities. Comparing European universities L. Raiser writes that there is a kind of traditional basic model of the university which goes back to the mediaeval establishment of the university and which has been severely questioned in recent years. Hence throughout Europe there is talk of a crisis in the university. Raiser lists three factors which involved the universities in

this crisis:

(1) Excessive number of students as a result of the increase in high school graduates;
(2) university reform which was required because of the increase in the number of students, amongst other reasons, and which was implemented against the background of structures which were centuries old; and
(3) ideological and moral impotence of the universities and the various disciplines in the face of social problems.[11]

The fact that the problems of the university are not purely quantitative but largely due to a qualitative change in the disciplines themselves was pointed out ten years ago by W. Hofman who characterized the universities today as a rapidly growing collection of technical institutes located under one roof. Hofman alluded to an increasing deemphasis of theory (detheorization) within the individual disciplines.[12]

After years of efforts to achieve educational reform it is still impossible to speak of a consolidation of the universities. The tendency towards bureaucracy within the European universities has helped to create apathy and resignation in broad areas of the university and thus to paralyse the potential for innovation within them.[13] The essence of the crisis of the university, as a crisis of identity and direction within the various disciplines, is far too closely linked with a general social crisis of direction.[14] Thus any reference to its solution would be premature.

On the other hand, all over Europe the beginnings of a reform in the organization of studies is evident, the theoretical basis for which can be found in the concept of recurrent education. As was the case with almost no other educational model, the future prospects of recurrent education were illustrated and vigorously championed by international organizations.[15] The concept recurrent education embraces the entire education system, in particular the post-secondary level including the adult level. Even if most of the following reports on individual countries are far removed from the ideal concept of recurrent education in

their descriptions of aspects of education reform, some essential criteria are met, for example the possibility of alternating between employment and study; part-time study whilst employed; increased access to study, in which context employment is considered to be the decisive criterion; the individualization of learning goals by the introduction of credits systems etc.; as well as the decentralization of places of study.

The following survey of individual countries is intended to show the situation in the areas of university adult education in Europe which have been discussed briefly in the foregoing.

Tendencies and Future Prospects in University Adult Education in the European States

In the following a survey is attempted of the situation and tendencies in university adult education in Europe. This is followed by a description of the situation in individual countries. The reader should thus be able to obtain a general overview and hence pursue in greater detail his individual area of interest in the separate reports relating to individual countries.

Traditional Forms of University Adult Education

The forms of university adult education which can be described as traditional in the sense that they are an extension of the university, and the different organisational forms of intra-mural and extra-mural participation by the universities in the general field of adult education which demand no admission requirements specific to the university, have been extended in almost all European countries in recent years. They have undergone an upward reevaluation in terms of educational policy and in part have also received a basis in the law. In Great Britain, which can continue to serve as an example, almost all universities have their own extra-mural departments. Each department has its own instructors who offer continuing education courses with no specific admission requirements both within and outside the

university as such. In recent years in the Federal Republic of Germany, in keeping with the 1973 Comprehensive Plan for Education, in part due to previous demands by the Federal Government, continuing education departments at the Universities of Oldenburg, Hamburg, Mainz and Osnabrück have been added to the central institutions which already existed at the Universities of Berlin, Goettingen, Hannover and Augsburg. In Denmark, Sweden and Norway the universities work within similar organizational structures; in particular, however, the independent people's universities, who see their function as the dissemination of scientific knowledge, are involved in university level adult education. In Norway in particular, the universities have extended the work of the local university study circles. In all of this there is a recognisable tendency to make available university adult education courses on a broad regional and local basis. The people's universities are playing an important intermediary and organizational role here, as is the case for example in Denmark where 85 local committees of the people's universities are involved in local organization. In Norway it was only in the mid-sixties that extra-mural activities were widely extended as the result of a parliamentary resolution; in 1976 university groups were organized in no less than 94 locations.

In France in the early seventies, as a result of the legislation concerning paid educational leave, there was a quantitative increase in university adult education in the Workers' Institutes (these institutes are part of the university and have a specific trade union orientation). This increase was also due to the work of the individual Commissioners for Continuing Education, who are usually university teachers.

In Italy, due to the lack of state reforms, initiatives in university adult education result primarily from mass movements with a trade union orientation and from agreements in the field of social policy. Such agreements are, however, very insecure. Probably one of the best known activities in this area is the so-called 150 hour model which resulted from an agreement

negotiated between unions and employers. It has existed since 1973 and was responsible for university courses offered to workers.

In Austria, where university adult education in part originated for the German language area, it does not enjoy a very flourishing existence although it is available in conventional forms such as the university weeks.

In Switzerland there are close links between the universities and the local people's universities, as well as close ties to economic institutions and professional associations. The universities function as cooperative partners in a wide variety of ways.

In Poland there is considerable participation by university teachers in adult education, but this is neither financed nor organized by the universities.

In almost all European countries university adult education in its more traditional forms has achieved a breakthrough. This has occurred since the early seventies at the latest. Positive as this is, there has been an undeniable stagnation in this area in recent years. Furthermore, the lack of formally structured forms of university adult education in individual European countries provides reason to fear that these have been forced into the background by the intensification of efforts to achieve internal university reform.

Within the field of traditional university adult education the following three broad trends can be distinguished:

(1) The better the infrastructure of adult education is, and the wider the spread of programmes offered, both in terms of region and the curriculum, the more the universities tend to lose their substitutional function in adult education;

(2) where appropriate structural conditions are met, the universities in increasing measure are fulfilling complementary or complementary-innovatory functions in adult education by making available their specific research and teaching competence for formal courses in adult education which represent an extension and a supplement to the courses offered

by other adult education agencies or institutions. Hence where there is a need, the resources and competence of the universities are requested by adult education agencies or professional associations and industry; i.e. in large measure the universities are subordinating their planning in adult education to the requirements of others; and

(3) many institutions or well-established forms of university adult education, e.g. the extra-mural departments in English universities, or the university study circles in Norway and Sweden, have undergone a partial change in function. They no longer supply only short courses in the field of general adult education; instead they are taking over more systematized functions, normally those of the university proper, e.g. courses for students with university entrance qualifications who wish to prepare for examinations by independent study, or courses designed to prepare students for university entrance and continuing education courses.

The tendency described under Point 3 towards a partial change in the understanding of the university's function within the framework of traditional fields of university adult education must be regarded as the expression of basic problems of structure and legitimation. The universities are confronted with internal and external difficulties in justifying a contribution to general adult education whilst at the same time initiating new internal continuing education functions arising from efforts to achieve reforms in studies. As a result of this, personnel in traditional university adult education are more and more frequently seeking to expand their role by assuming newer continuing education functions within the regular university.

New Forms of University Study for Adults

As was already stated above, a change has occurred in recent years in the relationship between the university and adult education as a consequence of efforts to achieve university reform. The programmes for adults, in the form of continuing

education, distance education, supplementary education and part-time courses for employed persons, have involved the universities more deeply in continuing education. The various European universities have taken the initial steps towards the solution of the problems arising from university admission requirements, the time-structure of courses and examinations and the questions of decentralization.

The Open University (OU) in Great Britain represents one of the most important steps towards the opening-up of the universities; it goes hand in hand with innovations in instruction and flexibility in course selection, the sequence of courses and examinations, and distance education courses. Distance education courses or corresponding model projects exist in the Federal Republic of Germany, in Austria and elsewhere.

Continuing education for university graduates has already achieved a degree of tradition in some countries (Great Britain), while in others it is being tried out (Federal Republic of Germany).

In recent years the universities in Sweden and Yugoslavia have undergone the most sweeping functional changes. The universities in these countries are to an increasing degree assuming their place in recurrent adult education through an infinitely variable period of study and evaluation of the applicant's previous employment as a criterion for admission to studies. In Sweden all such studies are divided into programmes which contain individual courses which can be taken in stages and which make possible the combination of study and employment. A system of units and credits permits the period of study to be adapted to each individual case.

In Yugoslavia a legislative basis for the trend towards part-time study was created in 1977, a trend which has been increasing for some years; this has involved the universities more and more extensively in the field of adult education. Available statistics show that a high proportion of the students at Yugoslav universities are combining part-time study with their employment; their employment experience is the most important

admission criterion. The proportion of students involved in part-time study -- and this applies equally to Poland -- is much higher than that for those involved in regular full-time study. In this context the Yugoslav self-management organizations have an important function, since they form the material and social background for the part-time students. Part-time study either on or off campus, is gaining in importance in all European countries.

These tendencies at the university level, which have been described only in outline and by way of example, show that the crisis of the European universities has manifested itself in varying degrees in the form of structural and functional changes which extend from upgrading courses for academics to part-time programmes of studies for employed persons in which the period of study is adapted to the individual's requirements and which have no special admission requirements.

The positive development at the post-secondary level, namely that the universities have assumed an increasing role in continuing education and in the long term in recurrent education, does, however, raise the question as to the cooperation between institutionalized adult education and the European universities in this field. At present there is no obvious indication of a relationship in content and structure between the fields of post-secondary and adult education within the overall concept of recurrent education.

Overview of Individual Countries

The following is an overview of the organizational structures of traditional and more recent forms of university adult education in the European countries represented within this monograph. The content of the reports on individual countries is summarized here as well as other information. The information which follows makes no claim to completeness but is intended only as an outline of basic structures and significant trends for the purpose of exemplification.

Austria

In Austria university adult education began in the 1890's in the form of popularizing lectures but today, even in a modified form, plays no very significant role. With the increasing expansion of the professional associations and educational agencies involved in adult education, the quasi substitional role of the universities has become obsolete. A few specialized university courses, e.g. the University Weeks which are open to anyone, and a few public university courses can be regarded as the successors to the popularizing university lectures. However, these courses are neither systematically organized nor are the pedagogical principles of adult education applied in them.

An increasingly important key element in the efforts to achieve university reform is distance education. In this field the following projects are being tried in Austria on an experimental basis:

(1) A distance education course for high school teachers;
(2) upgrading studies in Law and Business Administration and Economics which can be taken on or off campus;
(3) distance education course as a component in the preparatory study for a university entrance examination; and
(4) modification of components in distance education courses for use in regular study courses.

Some initiatives are apparent in the opening of the universities to students not at present qualified for admission. Under this plan a maximum of 3 per cent of the number of domestic first-year students in any year can be admitted to university on completion of a one year preparatory course in the subject in which they wish to major. Components from distance education courses are to be integrated into these preparatory courses.

Denmark

The Danish universities have no institutions or organizational structures comparable to those in Great Britain or the Federal Republic of Germany through which they could participate in

general adult education. On the other hand in the university towns there are people's universities whose history has set them apart from the traditional universities and which today exist as independent institutions. However, a high percentage of the teachers in the people's univeristies are recruited from the regular universities. Each year approximately 20,000 - 25,000 people take advantage of courses organized by the people's universities or by the 85 local committees which work in collaboration with the local folk high schools and other educational institutions. The programme offered by the people's universities makes available scientific and academic knowledge in order to close the gap between the university and society and to make knowledge available to a broad spectrum of the population in a form which is readily applicable.

At the university level beginnings of recurrent education exist only in some technical subjects and in the field of business administration and economics. This takes the form of a system of units and credits enabling courses and examinations to be adapted to the individual's own pace.

France

In some areas the French universities are in direct competition with institutions engaged in general adult education. By virtue of the Law Concerning Paid Educational Leave of 1971, which declared vocational upgrading to be a national obligation, the universities have entered the field of adult education, although there is a considerable variation in terms of region and quality. The Workers' Institutes are adult university education centres which are an integral part of the universities and which organize and offer courses for members of trade unions. In these courses information about social and industrial problems is discussed from the trade union point of view, but using the techniques and data of academic enquiry. In addition, there exist at the French universities departments which ocrrespond to the continuing education dpeartments in the Federal Republic of Germany.[16] However, these departments do not have a special staff; instead,

university teachers have been commissioned to scrutinize internal university offerings. In addition, an Administrative Council exists, in the universities, consisting of university personnel and members of professional associations. This Administrative Council, together with the Commissioner for Continuing Education, cooperates with teachers from within the university and from outside sources, to organize general and vocational continuing education courses.

The universities in France are certainly engaged in a broad range of activities in continuing education. However, the structure and areas of activity are so heterogeneous and difficult to survey that it is impossible to speak of a uniform university adult education approach.

The Federal Republic of Germany

Up to the present the institutionalization of university adult education has been successful only in West Berlin, Lower Saxony and a few other areas. The Secretariat for Adult Education at the Free University in West Berlin is particularly active in intra-mural adult education. In Lower Saxony there exist four continuing education departments. These are central institutions. In addition departments exist in Hamburg, Cassel and Mainz. In contrast to Great Britain, where the extra-mural departments have their own teaching staff, the central institutions in the Federal Republic of Germany have only a few qualified staff members whose main function is the organization of continuing education in the form of a package or group of courses, using their research and teaching capacities. On the basis of this group of courses, other institutions situated elsewhere, especially the people's universities, can select and request courses from the central institution. These programmes are then given either as an evening seminar lasting one entire semester, or in the form of a concentrated course, e.g. during paid educational leave. The average duration of a seminar within the university adult education programme is 40 hours of instruction. In this way it is possible to supply continuing education to

regional areas which hitherto were ill provided for. The main function of university adult education in the Federal Republic of Germany, however, consists in complementing the existing general adult education programmes by more specialized continuing education in the sciences and professions.

The continuing education departments are also beginning to become active in other aspects of continuing education, e.g. setting up models and target group conceptions[17] and internal university measures such as the upgrading of non-academic university personnel. By implementing measures in the field of university adult education extending over several semesters, the continuing education departments for some years have been undertaking preliminary work in the field of systematic distance education.

In addition to the institutions mentioned above there are some institutions at other universities in the Federal Republic of Germany, e.g. at the Technical University of Aachen, the Ruhr University in Bochum and at the Universities in Bamberg, Bremen, Frankfurt and Marburg, which are participating in university adult education in various ways.[18]

A number of experimental model programmes in the field of distance education or continuing education have been initiated in recent years.[19] Since distance education is the responsibility of the universities themselves and, unlike extra-mural university adult education, does not constitute an area which, from the institutional and organizational point of view, falls between two educational sectors with different structure and legislative bases, it is certain that distance education will undergo a considerable expansion in the coming years. Continuing education will receive a further powerful stimulus due to the reduction in the use of university capacity which is anticipated in the mid-eighties. At present, however, a series of problems is being widely discussed, among these the question of paid educational leave, criteria for admission to distance education, certification of achievement in the courses and the question of additional qualifications to be granted to teachers.

The University Basic Law of 1976 is the legislative basis for the forms of university adult education which have been so far discussed. Paragraph 3 of Section 2 reads as follows: "The universities shall serve the goals of continuing education and shall participate in organized continuing education. They shall promote the continuing education of their own personnel." This passage has been adopted in similar form until now in most of the provincial legislation dealing with the universities.

The Working Group for University Adult Education in Hannover, which has existed since 1968 is an organization for all persons and institutions in the Federal Republic of Germany involved in university adult education. The Working Group has for years conducted extensive research and development projects within this area as well as in questions relating to the qualifications of personnel active in continuing education. It has carried out extensive information and documentation in the field of university continuing education.[20]

Due to the establishment of the Distance Education University of Hagen in 1975, distance education, i.e. part-time study for employed persons, has become much more important in the Federal Republic of Germany, although this was not the original intention. Of the 11,600 distance education students who were registered in 1978, approximately only 11 per cent were full-time students, i.e. their main occupation was that of student. More than 75 per cent of the distance education students had already completed a vocational training, 85 per cent were employed full-time; 87 per cent were 38 years of age or younger and over 60 per cent were aged between 25 and 33.[21]

Due to the establishment of local study centres the Distance Education University operates almost everywhere within the Federal Republic of Germany. However, the university entrance examination remains the requirement for admission to a regular course in distance education leading to a recognized final qualification.

Italy

The social and political discussion initiated by the trade unions in recent years led to the agreement relating to the so-called 150 hours reached between the unions and the employers' associations under which every worker has the right to 150 hours of paid educational leave. Up to now, within the framework of the 150 hours agreement, and specifically within adult education institutions, courses offered were aimed at those who wished to make up their compulsory school-leaving examination.

Within the 150 hours framework, however, some initiatives were taken by the universities in the offering of courses for workers, usually in the form of seminars in which regular students participate together with workers.[22] Up to now the subjects of such seminars were usually problems of the industrial world which were examined using the methodology of scientific enquiry. In addition to this, the universities, or their personnel on an individual basis, in the course of mass spontaneous political action have taken the necessary internal university measures to permit workers and students together to combine study with political activity in the form of a project study. Such activities cannot be quantified nor can firm structures be distinguished. Hence it is hardly possible to speak of a long-term contribution to a general system of adult education by the universities.

In 1968 the Italian universities introduced sweeping changes in university admission requirements due to the massive flood of applicants. Since that time the number of part-time students has increased enormously. However, as of 1979/80 it is anticipated that more stringent admission requirements will be re-introduced.

Norway

In Norway the universities together with local adult education agencies organize university study circles. The universities supply course offerings for these university study circles and provide teachers for extra-mural work. The organization and funding of this activity is assumed by the people's universities. The goal is to achieve optimum decentralized servicing and regional

course offerings in a thinly populated country. In 1976 university study circles were organized in 94 locations with a total of 18,000 participants.

It is worthy of note that the university study circles are not only offering individual courses leading to no final qualification; to an increasing degree they are assuming the function of decentralized study centres for part-time students who are enrolled at universities. In 1976 there were 8,000 such students out of a total of 18,000 participants in university study circles; these students were preparing independently, i.e. did not attend courses at universities, for the examination in philosophy.

The mixture of functions in Norway suggests that the university study circles are assuming a function which is increasingly related to regular university studies. In addition, the people's universities in Norway function in a manner similar to those in Denmark.

Poland

The participation of university teachers in general adult education is neither organized nor funded by the universities in Poland, but they are active within adult education, in particular in the people's universities. The long tradition of the popularization of learning which in Poland extends back to the 1780's hardly exists today. It is only in the field of literature and Polish history that public lectures and a series of seminars are occasionally organized.

In Poland, as in many other socialist countries, part-time study by employed persons is very common. In the academic year 1973/74 39.1 per cent of all students availed themselves of courses available to part-time students and the proportion of students involved in part-time study who come from workers' or farmers' families, is particularly high. Various organizational structures exist which make possible such part-time study: evening courses; extra-mural courses in local continuing education centres, in which every two weeks for two days group learning

phases are organized; as well as individual independent study and the beginnings of a system of credit courses which can be selected and completed in stages.

Sweden

The university study circles are particularly important for general adult education in Sweden. Each year approximately 2,000 university study circles, with some 35,000 participants, are held all over the country. As in Norway the trend is for the university study circles to slant their work towards the regular university courses and thus make it possible for their participants to prepare themselves for off-campus university examinations.

In recent years the Swedish university system has undergone what is probably one of the most far-reaching structural and functional transformations in Europe. Changes in admission requirements which aim at making it possible for employed persons, who do not qualify for university admission, to study in introductory programmes divided into individual courses which can be studied in stages, linked with a units and credits system, as well as the decentralization of university course offerings, represent a package of reforms which, because of the possibility of alternating between work and study and the increased individual choice as to periods of study, very closely approximate the model of recurrent education.

Switzerland

In Switzerland there are two traditional forms of university adult education. The auditor system makes it possible for individual adults to take part in regular university courses with, however, no additional privileges or obligations. In addition, there is a close link between the existing universities and the local people's universities. In addition to this the universities, or their teaching staff, cooperate with professional associations, government administrators, industry etc., both

within the university and outside it, to provide forms of general and professional continuing education. One third of the participants in such courses are adults with no university degree or diploma, two thirds have a degree or similar qualification. No central departments exist within the universities for activities of this kind. The tendency is for universities not to assert their autonomy within this field but rather to accept a large measure of external influence.

The universities do, however, exercise complete autonomy in the field of post-diploma studies (distance education or continuing education courses for university graduates), which are more frequently conducted in the French language area of Switzerland than in the German language area.

Since 1972/73 it has been possible at the University of Geneva to take a teacher's training course on a part-time basis whilst working as a teacher, or in the form of distance education courses. This was made possible by the introduction of the credit system.

United Kingdom

Extra-mural departments exist at 38 universities with approximately 340 staff tutors and approximately 1,000 part-time personnel paid either by the universities or by the government. The staff tutors in some cases are engaged in normal university teaching and research but their main activity is the organization and teaching of regional extra-mural programmes in general adult education which are open to all interested persons. The forms which these programmes take are: tutorials, of up to three years in duration; concentrated courses with 2-4 meetings; mini-seminars with 6 to 10 meetings; one-day seminars; individual meetings and weekend seminars; and summer schools. Some of these programmes are held at the universities but usually, in cooperation with the Workers' Educational Association and the Local Education Authorities, they are decentralized into other education centres and schools.

Each year some 200,000 persons participate in university adult

education programmes in Great Britain. Two thirds of such programmes are courses within the framework of traditional liberal arts and lead to no special certificate or qualification.

Post-experience studies in the form of professional upgrading are becoming increasingly important and are offered for various professional groups, usually those which have had an academic training. At some extra-mural departments (London) courses leading to a recognized qualification have considerably increased in number.

The Open University (OU) represents the most comprehensive attempt at reform and the most radical change in the university and within adult education in the entire European education system.[23] Any adult anywhere within Great Britain can study at the OU. Studies at the OU are primarily distance education courses using texts and experimental books as well as radio and television broadcasts. Tutorials and individual counselling are also a part of the study programme. The period of study, including the repetition of courses, and the combination of various courses, is largely adaptable to individual needs. There is a units and credits system under which six credits are required for a general B.A. and eight credits for an honours B.A. degree. Each year some 45,000 students enroll in the OU, of whom the majority are employed persons. There are also plans to organize professional continuing education within the framework of the OU.

In Great Britain, as in the Federal Republic of Germany, it is generally anticipated that there will be a considerable reduction in the number of students at universities from the mid 1980's on and hence the authorities are already developing ideas as to how the unused capacities could be used for adult training and continuing education.[24]

Yugoslavia

Yugoslavia may be regarded as an example of the attempt to put into practice the principle of recurrent education through the reform of post-secondary education, including the universities

and adult education. Part-time study by employed adults can be regarded as the central element in this reform process. This practice has meanwhile been established by legislation and has led to a broad opening-up of the universities. Persons from workers' and farmers' families in particular have received increased opportunity for study. At the same time part-time study has had a considerable influence on internal university structures as well as on curricula structures. Because it is possible to adapt the sequence of courses and examinations to individual requirements, the students can alternate between work and study. The workers' self-management provides an important social and material basis for part-time students.

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UNIVERSITY AND ADULT EDUCATION IN AUSTRIA

Eva Hunold

Introduction

In the second half of the last century in Austria as elsewhere in Europe the idea of popular education gained increasingly wide support. Popular education became a political issue.[1] In 1883 the proposal was made by the University of Vienna "to make it possible for broad sections of the population to share in the results of university research through instruction adapted to their level."[2] Popularizing university courses were organized in order to systematically serve educational and informational needs. A remarkable aspect of this adult education was the high proportion of working-class people in the over-all student enrollment, which amounted to 54 per cent in the academic years 1898-99 and 1900-01.[3] This work was soon taken on also by the Universities of Innsbruck and Graz and others soon followed suit. Professors, lecturers and students offered extra-mural courses in the service of the nation. "Thus the universities -- after the English model -- became the main sponsors of popular education. The university teachers functioned as teachers of the population at large."[4] From this developed the People's University in Vienna (established in 1901 as a Centre for Popular Education, today the People's University in Vienna-Ottakring). The goal was to make possible intensive specialized adult education and

self-learning as a product of this education, "to activate thought processes and to teach to think critically...",[5] admittedly not about the controversial questions of the day but about non-controversial subjects. In so doing it was hoped that the broad masses would of their own accord transfer their interests to the social and political fields. As associations and various other sponsoring agencies for adult education developed, the lecture series within the framework of the university extension decreased. Remnants of the former university adult education exist today in various forms.

Legislative Basis of University Adult Education in Austria

Article 18 of the General Law on University Studies of October 20, 1966 contains the legislative basis for the organization and instruction of university programmes and courses.[6] Such courses are to be given with an established curriculum and timetable. They are to provide additional training in various subjects to accompany or to follow upon a regular programme of studies. In order to serve the needs of employed persons, the lectures, seminars etc., may be held in the evening hours. Such measures require the approval of the Federal Ministry of Education. Students enrolled in courses of this kind are to be registered as regular auditors or as special students. Section 18 of the Law distinguishes between three kinds of university programmes:

(1) general programmes for practical training, e.g. of physical education teachers;
(2) continuing education in areas of specialization, accompanying or following a regular programme of studies; and
(3) courses of advanced studies following the completion of a regular programme of studies and serving the continuing education of junior scholars and researchers.[7]

The new University Organization Law of 1978 (in force since the beginning of the academic year 1975/76) makes no changes in

the legislation dealing with university courses and programmes. It merely regulates the competencies for their organization, coordination, conduct and funding. These remain the responsibility of the university faculties unless they are addressed to students outside a specific faculty, in which case they are the responsibility of the Academic Senate. This legislation for example makes it possible for the university to organize programmes and courses for the training of and upgrading of adult educators.

Present State of University Adult Education in Austria

In terms of historical development, adult education activities of the universities appear to be on the decline. Undoubtedly, there are a large number of university teachers active in adult education today, however not in groups and organized as they were at the end of the last century but only as individual teachers in the various agencies and educational circles.

In Austrian universities, organized adult education courses or programmes are rare. The following are some examples:

University Programmes and Courses

-A course in pastoral psychology at the Theological Faculty of the University of Innsbruck (duration 4 semesters).[8]

-A university course for export merchants at the Vienna University Institute for International Trade.

-A university course for conductors of brass bands at the University Academy of Music and the Graphic Arts in Graz.[9]

These are specialized courses for persons who are not enrolled as students at a university or who are already employed. It seems that at none of the Austrian universities is this kind of programme, as is provided for in the legislation, (organized as a university programme) used for the upgrading of adult educators.

University Weeks

-The Vienna International University Courses.

-The Corinthian University Weeks at the University of Graz.

-The Meran University Weeks at Innsbruck University.
-The Salzburg University Weeks.
-The Alpach University Weeks.
These are regarded as the extension of the university into a geographical area which has no university of its own. In part they have an international reputation.

Public University Courses

-The University of Innsbruck Lecture Series.
-The Auditorium academicum in Salzburg.
-Seminar for catechists, open to professionally active theology professors at the Theological Faculty at Innsbruck.
Courses of this kind can be regarded as the genuine successors to the popularizing university lectures.

Training of Adult Educators as a Subject at University

There are a few paid teaching positions and one chair for courses in the teaching of adult education at the university. Thus the periodical Erwachsenenbildung in Oesterreich advertises courses in adult education at Austrian universities for the Summer Semester 1977 in Granz, Innsbruck, Klagenfurt, Linz, Salzburg and Vienna.[10] Only at Klagenfurt are three different courses by three different university teachers announced. At each of the other five universities only one course in adult education is offered, and that is in the general area of adult pedagogy and psychology. At this time the teaching of adult education as a subject is a supplementary special area within studies in pedagogy or the broad field of the educational sciences.[11] There is only one chair of adult education in Austria, "the Chair for Adult Education and Out-of-school Education at the Institute of Education of the University of Vienna."[12] Those who teach the subject of adult education are in part so-called practitioners. Since the issuing of the Regulations Governing the Study of Pedagogy, August 31, 1973, the second stage of the study programme was divided into systematic and special pedagogy.[13] This would make it possible to select a concentration in the teaching of adult education from the 4th to 8th semester, (this is recognized as a special area in

education). This would make it possible to receive training as a full-time adult educator through a complete programme of studies. This programme, as well as the university courses and programmes mentioned above, can obviously prove effective only if they are implemented at the universities.

Distance Education at the Austrian Universities[14]

At this time there are several projects for the introduction of distance education at the Austrian universities.

One of these is a distance continuing education course for secondary school teachers involved in supervising the training of student teachers. The aim is to provide a refresher course as well as additional training in pedagogy. The outline of this course already exists.

A continuing education course in law, business management and economics (which can be taken either on campus or as a distance education course) is being prepared by the Technical University at Vienna. It is conceived of as an upgrading course for employed persons with previous technical training. This project is still in the planning stages.

Another is a distance education course which is to form a part of the programme which prepares students for the university admissions examination. This course is planned within the framework of the new regulations governing the Second Educational Chance Stream and is intended as an aid to applicants who experience particular difficulties arising from their employment, household duties, or the distance from the university.

These projects are intended to supplement the existing university course offerings and are aimed at employed persons (academically trained and other persons) and persons who live a long way from the university centres.

The goals of distance education in general are:
-To relieve the burden on the existing educational institutions (the number of student places available).
-The creation of new courses of study.
-The opening-up of the universities.
Palank is of the opinion that the projects listed above relate

more directly to the second and third objectives.

Adult Education at the Teacher Training Colleges

As part of teacher training in Austria a few hours in the teacher training college curriculum are devoted to adult education. These courses attempt to introduce the students to the objectives, content and methodology of adult education.

Training and Upgrading of Adult Educators in Austria

Through Universities

Of the possible methods of training adult educators mentioned above, the following would be the most suitable forms for a university qualification programme:

(1) a programme of studies in pedagogy, or in education, with adult education as a special subject; or
(2) a supplementary programme in andragogy as a university course.

"Since the entire university system in Austria is at present in the process of reorganization and andragogy has not yet found its place within these changes, there is only a chance that the proposed new forms will be implemented."[15] There are at present only two valid plans for studies in pedagogy, i.e. at the University of Graz and the University for Educational Science at Klagenfurt. Neither of these plans offers adult education as special pedagogy. In the Graz plan adult education is proposed as a supplementary subject. At the University of Salzburg work has been in progress for some years (1973/74) on a programme of studies in which the teaching of adult education is one area of concentration in addition to the study of vocational education. The students are opposed to this proposal. Plans also exist at the University of Vienna for adult education as a form of special pedagogy.[16] The University for Educational Science at Klagenfurt offers university teaching as a form of special pedagogy.[17]

During the year in which the University of Klagenfurt was

founded, 1972-73, some courses in adult education were offered on an experimental basis. Staff from adult education institutions and university faculty collaborated,[18] and the establishment of an Institute for Adult Education was proposed. This initial cooperation was, however, not continued. Hence today at this university "despite its specialization in education, the teaching of adult education as a subject in its own right" does not exist.[19] The hope that an Austrian centre for the training and upgrading of adult educators would be established at this university has not been fulfilled.[20] Instead, concentration has shifted to the field of conventional education (methods in university teaching, teacher training). The contribution by the Austrian universities to the training and upgrading of adult educators has been minimal.

Through Adult Education Associations

In order to explain the attempts by the adult education associations in Austria to qualify their teaching staff, an outline of the situation in adult education in Austria will be given.

The beginnings of the popular education movement in Austria described earlier led to the creation of a number of other adult education associations beside the People's Universities Association. In 1972, at the invitation of the Federal Ministry of Education and Art, seven major adult education associations joined to form the Standing Conference on Adult Education in Austria for the purposes of consultation and cooperation.[21] In 1969 the passage of the Law on the Promotion of Employment Opportunities created an instrument for the encouragement of vocational upgrading and retraining. In 1973 the Law on the Promotion of Adult Education was passed, which grants financial support to organized adult education in Austria and makes available funding at the federal level.

The plurality and autonomy of the interest groups involved in Austrian adult education is regarded as the "guarantee for the provision of a wide spectrum of adult education to the

various sectors of the population."[22] The adult education law encourages the training of "teachers who are competent in their subject...and methods which are appropriate for adult education", whilst, however, preserving independence "with respect to the organization of programmes and courses, teaching methods and the selection of instructors".[23]

There has always been a tendency to regard training and upgrading as a special function of the individual education associations but this has been particularly the case since the fifties. Today there is certainly a trend towards the systematization and tightening-up of training; programmes are preferred with an introductory and an upgrading component. Even if, however, adult education law has succeeded in implementing a joint project on the basic training of adult educators, all the associations nevertheless realize "that there are a number of requirements specific to institutions which make a special training necessary".[24]

The People's Universities Association organizes conferences and seminars for directors and instructors of the People's Universities regularly at its Education Centre "Haus Rief" near Salzburg. Although anyone (provided that he has the required knowledge) can be a seminar leader or an instructor, in recent years there have been increasing demands for appropriate qualifications for such teaching personnel. This applies particularly to people in senior positions and is less the case for instructors (practitioners and school teachers).[25]

The Circle of Austrian Educational Centres offers seminars specifically in the fields of "political and musical education, group dynamics and meditation, structures of social life" and has organized a seminar called Reflective Faith in collaboration with the Catholic educational centres. These form the foundations of an independent Animateur Training Programme of the Circle. Particular emphasis is placed in this programme on the development of the personality of teachers; adult education is not understood merely as a technique to be imported.[26]

The Institute for the Promotion of Industry has created a

media programme for lecturers, course leaders and training personnel. The Media Seminar Series for Industrial Training Personnel has been running since the Autumn of 1976 and comprises related seminars, written materials, and colour films. As a matter of policy, there are no examinations in this programme.[27]

These examples of independent initiatives undertaken by some larger associations in the area of training and upgrading of their personnel may suffice.

By Cooperation Between the Standing Conference and the Federal Authorities

The Federal Ministry for Education and Art is organized into five sections. Section V comprises sports, out-of-school youth education and adult education. The Section is subdivided into four departments. Department V/4 is called Adult Education and Public Libraries. It has a staff of seven and is directly responsible for a specialized library on adult education, for the editing of the periodical Erwachsenenbildung in Oesterreich, for the Federal Institute of Adult Education at St. Wolfgang, and for the agencies which support adult education in the Provinces.[28]

Amongst the most important function of this department, in cooperation with the Standing Conference, is the development of adult education and the public libraries and, in particular, helping with the training of adult educators and public librarians. The Basic Training Programme for Adult Educators is a direct result of the cooperation between all of the associations which make up the Standing Conference and the Federal Ministry for Education and Art.

The programme was conceived by a project group (based on experience with a certification course). All of the associations in the Standing Conference are involved. It has been operating since 1975 and provides four one-week seminars, a study of literature and a final test in addition to an oral examination. Before the latter can be taken, proof must be provided of practical experience in the field. The Federal Ministry of Education and

Art and all of the participating associations provide certification for successful graduates of the course. The topics of the four seminars are:

(1) Adult Education Institutions in Austria: their Goals, their Organization and Work Structures.
Teaching Methods in Adult Education.

(2) Adult Learning, its Principles and Motivation.
Rhetoric.
Aids to Self-study.
Introduction to Group Dynamics.

(3) The Place of Adult Education in the Learning Society.
Relevant Legislation.
Advertising and Counselling.
Collaboration with the Mass Media.

(4) Management in Adult Education (Planning, Decision-making, Organizing, Implementing, Supervising, Personnel Management).[29]

The instructional materials for a Distance Course for Adult Educators are part of the prescribed reading in the basic course and there is other recommended literature. The funding of the course is provided mainly by the Federal Ministry. In the Summer of 1977 the first students completed the basic course.

The second project-group of the Standing Conference worked out the instructional materials for a Distance Course for Adult Educators. These materials issued in seven booklets were intended to offer basic information in important areas, such as the use of the media and the group phase, in easily understood language and in an accessible form. For full-time teachers this represents a starting point, while for part-time teachers this provides adequate information. The booklets are published jointly by the Federal Ministry and the Standing Conference. "The individual components of the course, which were conceived of as 'building blocks', were incorporated into various training programmes."[30] Reports and comparative research on the feasibility of these courses is still in progress. In principle the courses are open to all full-time or part-time teachers in adult education and any interested persons.

In addition to the professionally qualified adult educators, there are other types of adult educators: animateurs, leisure-time aides, and senior citizens' aides. Here, too, the individual adult education associations are active in the development of long-term training programmes. For example, the Working-group on the Active Use of Leisure, which is active throughout Austria in the form of clubs, organizes seminars for part-time adult educators in adult education, social work, youth work and tourism. Similarly, under the supervision of the Federal Ministry, a Study-group for Animation is to examine the possibility of a joint training programme for animateurs.[31]

Thus the joining of the adult education associations in the Standing Conference in 1972 has accomplished something positive with regard to the training and upgrading of personnel. "The activities of the working-groups were positively assessed and the projects which led to the Law on the Promotion of Adult Education are considered to have been successful."[32] The universities have not been, and still are not, directly involved in all these activities other than by the participation of individual university teachers who are asked to serve as experts at congresses.

A further example would be the training and upgrading of the librarians in the Association of Austrian Public Libraries. For a considerable time this association has been involved in the training of the head librarians. There exists a training plan and regulations governing examinations which were compiled in cooperation with the Federal Ministry of Education and Art. For part-time personnel training courses are offered at the provincial level by the Association, the Federal Ministry and the provincial authorities. The establishment of a library institute is being considered. The function of this institute would be both the training of teaching-librarians and the centralized production of aides for libraries.[33]

Conclusion

University adult education has potential for development in

Austria. The legislation provides opportunities for the professional qualification of adult educators. Even though the various associations which make up the Standing Conference are carrying the burden of the training, it seems very important that the universities are assuming their share of the burden. Research in the field of adult education is another widely neglected field. However, research in adult education at the university level seems possible only if the cooperation with the adult education institutions, and ultimately with the Standing Conference, is developed and at the same time, if the teaching of andragogy is expanded in the universities. There are two ways of achieving this. Adult Education (as special pedagogy) can be integrated within a regular programme of studies, or can be offered as a supplementary programme at a university, possibly for employed persons on educational leave.

In the notes to the Basic University Law university programmes and courses are described as the "organized basis for the solution of the problems of adult education."[34] An example of this would be the earlier mentioned course in pastoral psychology at the university level which "is intended for theologians already professionally active, or persons with special functions within the Church. Its goal is university adult education within a specialized field."[35]

The prerequisite, "having had professional experience" is important for this course. Teaching methods are so planned that 'the courses require active participation by the student, they promote...group awareness, cooperation and make possible a fruitful interaction of theory and practice".[36]

Work of this kind, on the one hand, presupposes research and, on the other hand, facilitates it. This could be a particular advantage to this kind of training of adult educators. It should take place in close cooperation with adult edudcation institutions (associations) and could bring together those who teach and those who are active in the field of theory. It would promote the upgrading of adult educators as well as research in adult education and could improve the quality of the services performed by the adult education institutions.

NOTES

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3 MAEB, No. 9, op. cit., p. 33. Also Hertha Siemering, Arbeiterbildungswesen in Berlin und Wien, Karlsruhe, 1911, p. 15.

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5 Seifert, op. cit., p. 110.

6 Hunold, Eva, "Universitäre EB in Österreich am Beispiel des Pastoralpsychologischen Hochschullehrganges an der Theologischen Fakultät der Universität Innsbruck," AUE Information, S. 12, (1975), pp. 171-183. Also Bundesgesetz vom 15.7.1966, BGB 1, Nr. 177, über die Studien von den wissenschaftlichen Hochschulen (allgemeines Hochschul-Studiengesetz - AHStG).

7 Hunold, op. cit., p. 173.

8 Hunold, op. cit., p. 174.

9 MAEB, No. 9, (1977), p. 37.

10 Erwachsenenbildung in Österreich, No. 3, (1977), p. 168.

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12 MAEB, No. 9, (1977), p. 37.

13 Verordnung des BMfUK vom 31. August 1973, BGB 1, Nr. 472, über die Studienordnung für die Studienrichtung Pädagogik.

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15 MAEB, No. 9, (1977), p. 40.

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17 MAEB, No. 9, (1977), p. 44, Footnote 2.

18 Ibid., p. 45 and footnotes 1 and 2.

19 Ibid., p. 46.

20 PfniB, A., "Aus- und Fortbildung der Erwachsenenbildner," in PfniB, A., Erwachsenenbildung in unserer Zeit, Wien, 1972, p. 201.

21 The Standing Conference is formed by:

- Work Group of the Education Centres
- Vocational Study Institute
- Institute for Rural Education
- Circle of Austrian Educational Centres
- Association of Austrian Public Libraries
- People's Universities Association
- Institute of the Federal Chamber of Commerce

22 Kowar, P., "5. Jahrestag der KEBÖ," EBiÖ, no. 7-8, (1977), p. 353.

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26 Blaschek, op. cit., p. 98.

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28 Altenhuber, op. cit., p. 37.

29 Altenhuber, op. cit., pp. 50-51.

30 Blaschek, op. cit., p. 97.

31 Ibid., p. 99.

32 Kowar, op. cit., p. 357.

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34 Hunold, op. cit., p. 173.

35 Ibid., p. 179.

UNIVERSITY AND ADULT EDUCATION IN DENMARK

Per Himmelstrup

The Framework of Social and Educational Determinants

Economic developments, in particular the oil crisis of 1972/73, have made us aware of the limitations of our economic and natural resources. In Denmark this development has created a broad public interest in the achievement of greater insight into the overall activities of the State, in improving control over public funds and, to some degree, intensifying the planned control of future social development.

As early as 1971 the first long-term plan for the development of Danish society, the Forecast Plan 1970 to 1985, was published. This plan was an attempt to offer some forecasts and some alternatives for the development of society as a whole. It turned out that these forecasts were inaccurate since they had been based on data and trends from the 1960's.

The Forecast Plan, however, contained a very appropriate analysis of the Danish education system. This was characterized as a number of uncoordinated component systems with a centuries-old tradition within which they have continued to develop, remaining isolated in terms of content and organization from the other component systems which make up the overall Danish education system. This undesirable state of affairs, the existence of

which no one denies today, created a situation in which the Danish education consisted of a number of compartmentalized areas, each of which was distinctly separate and watertight and which lacked any overriding concept or goal.

The situation at the beginning of the seventies was thus far removed from the ideals which we associate with the educational and theoretical concept of life-long learning. The meaning of this concept is that learning should extend both vertically, i.e. from childhood to old age, and horizontally, i.e. should encompass all the activities, functions and potentialities of the adult.

In 1973 a Central Educational Council was established, with the goal to reform the Danish education system. The Council was to draw up an overall plan for the Danish education system; it was also to investigate and devise plans for the relationship of the education system to society, taking into account economic considerations.

However, the traditional division into sectors within education and particularistic thinking soon made themselves evident. As a result of the work of the Central Educational Council four so-called Sector Councils were formed for:

(1) the elementary schools (which comprises nine years of compulsory education in addition to the earlier pre-school and kindergarten school);
(2) the advanced schools (comprising grades 10 to 12, i.e. age 16 to 19);
(3) the advanced educational courses (all training with 12 years of regular schooling as a prerequisite); and
(4) youth and adult education (in practice everything outside the formal publicly funded education system).

The Councils have 24-30 members of whom the majority are appointed by social organizations and approximately one third are appointed by the competent ministry. In the last three years the main task of the Central Educational Council and the four Sector Councils was to draw up a fifteen-year plan for the Danish educational system. In the spring of 1978 work on this

project was completed. The fifteen-year plan (Long-term Plan U-90) is designed to serve as the basis for a wide-ranging public discussion at all levels of the population, with the goal to provide feed-back to politicians and administrators, so as to pave the way for rational decisions based on wide-spread support.

This wide-ranging information campaign carries the slogan "Debate on the Education Community". It was to be set in motion for the first time in the fall of 1978 and to be repeated in the fall of 1979.

Adult Education in Denmark

Adult education in Denmark is an important multi-structured field within the education system which cannot be precisely delineated and defined. The Forecast Plans for the Education System of 1971, 1973 and the most recent one, 1978 (U-90), unanimously take the view that adult education should receive high priority within educational policy and that increased funding should be made available for this purpose. However, one must bear in mind that up until now Danish adult education was almost exclusively the product of the private initiatives of various social groups. Most of the 80 folk high schools were established by private persons, some by the local population and some by organizations. They are operated as private independent institutions for which the State provides 85 per cent of the required funds without, however, exerting any influence on the course contents or the teaching methods.

The legislative basis for the activities of the various agencies active within the field of adult education is the Law Concerning Leisure-time Education. Amongst these bodies there are a few nation-wide organizations but also individuals, local clubs and local government authorities; all of these receive the same State subsidies, i.e. approximately 75 per cent of the costs of instruction, as well as the cost of the furnishing and servicing of the buildings. In recent years there has been a shift in favour of the organizations which exist on a nation-wide

basis. These account for 61 per cent of all activities in the field of adult education, whilst 22 per cent are sponsored by private organizations and only 17 per cent by the local authorities.

The greater part of adult education in Denmark takes the form of vocational continuing education. Usually this is organized by private companies and industrial associations although for some years the State and the local authorities have been increasing their role in this field. Approximately 40 per cent of the costs of vocational continuing education are borne by the industrial companies and associations while part of the costs are paid by the participants.

For the past 10 to 15 years educational programmes for adults on radio and television have been increasing steadily and some experimentation is underway in the media.

Since 1958 there has been considerable expansion in the second educational chance stream in Denmark. In this second chance stream it is possible firstly to make up the formal university entrance examination which follows grade 9 or 10 in school, and secondly to take a preparatory examination for entrance to university as an alternative to the normal university entrance examination. A factor which favoured this development was the opportunity for employed adults to take their examinations cumulatively, i.e. in stages over a longer period of time. With effect from August 1, 1978 the supervision of the second chance stream has been transferred from private education agencies to the public domain.

Due to the fact that the entire field of adult education in Denmark is semi-public in character, it has a variety of structures and is subject to various items of legislation, since it unfortunately falls within the competence of several ministeries. In view of this situation the Forecast Plan U-90 reluctantly refrained from positing any comprehensive goals (either in the field of educational theory or policy). On the other hand it emphasized the principle of active participation and input by the students in adult education courses. Input and direction by the students also means that the starting point for course content and the

educational goals must be related to the experience and the problems of the adults themselves. In order to activate groups within the population who hitherto have been educationally deprived, Forecast Plan U-90 made a special recommendation that forms of recruiting and counselling should be adopted. However, with very few exceptions, the recommendations of U-90 did not touch upon the structural and institutional aspects of adult education.

The Universities in Denmark

Arising from the work of the Central Educational Council, a reorganization of the departments within the Education Ministry itself was undertaken. All continuing education institutions which required 12 years of schooling as a prerequisite for admission were integrated into one administrative unit. Previously a rigid distinction had been made between institutions with and without the right to conduct research (the former being the universities).

In the question of admission requirements, two conflicting tendencies are apparent in Denmark. On the one hand the university entrance examination usually taken at secondary school, and the preparatory examination taken in the second chance stream have retained, indeed have even increased, their importance as a university admission requirements. On the other hand the possibility of admission to university on the basis of some criterion other than school attendance, for example on the basis of professional experience, is a subject of increasingly widespread discussion.

This, however, confronted the universities with a dilemma in the seventies. On the one hand they had to cope with the ever-growing stream of applicants and the fact that the duration of studies was constantly being extended, which placed further strain upon their capacities. On the other hand they were faced with the need to open the universities to broad sectors of the population.

In recent years it has become obvious that the universities

have such rigid structures that it is, amongst other things, barely possible for them to extend interdisciplinary collaboration, to place greater emphasis on vocational experience amongst their students and to offer courses in adult education. The five hundred year old tradition according to which it is the function of the universities to educate civil servants has retained its influence on university structures and course content within the Danish universities. Even today 80 per cent of all university graduates enter public service and the view is generally held that graduates are virtually non-employable in other professions. This limited function of the university, which Denmark has inherited from the Italian and French mediaeval and German nineteenth century universities, has led to an overemphasis on formal admission requirements and made the university an elitist institution. The inter-action between the university and society at large, as well as industry in particular, has always been very limited; by tradition the universities are neutral politically.

The exclusive and elitist character of university education in Denmark is also due to the fact that for 450 years the University of Copenhagen enjoyed a monopoly on regular academic education and that part-time studies were almost unknown. It was only in 1928 that the second Danish university was established in Arhus. Meanwhile a series of vocationally oriented higher education courses were established in various other institutions. The development of the Danish universities, of which the foregoing is only a brief outline, explains why the Danish folk high schools, which were founded after 1830 following Bishop Grundvig's visit to Oxford, adopted a consciously oppositional attitude towards the traditional forms of the university. Similarly in 1898 the People's University of Copenhagen was established; it was modelled on the English example and intended to contrast with the form of the traditional university. It was established following Professor Wilken's studies in English during which he had become familiar with the extra-mural activities of the British universities. The People's University was almost completely

independent and separate from the University of Copenhagen and was operated almost entirely through the idealism and selfless work of a few individuals who felt a greater commitment towards the folk high schools than towards the universities.

Even today the people's univerisites are not yet a naturally integrated element within the university system and the relationships between the people's universities and other educational and research institutions at the university level are poor.

However, for some time now the activities of the people's universities have no longer depended on the idealistic activities of a few isolated scholars. The recruitment of teaching staff is undertaken directly at all reserach institutes and universities within the country. In this way a much wider set of course offerings is available. This has not meant an automatic improvement in the quality of adult education offered by the people's universities, for a good research scholar is not necessarily a good adult educator. In this area there still exists a wide gap between the university and the people's university.

The most important step towards the overcoming of the elitist character of the Danish universities during the seventies was the establishment of the university centres and the removal of the rigid distinction between the institutions with and without the right to undertake research.

The fact still remains that the gap between the university and society, between research and the population at large, has not been narrowed. On the contrary, in the seventies a scholarly jargon which remains incomprehensible to the population at large developed within the humanities and the social sciences. Even in the two newly established university centres in Roskilde and Alborg it has not been possible to bridge the gap between the university and society.

Future Prospects

The difficulties involved in opening the universities to society and in creating the conditions necessary in order to

offer courses in adult education are in part rooted in the persistence of old ideas and traditions within the sphere of university education. For example, great emphasis continues to be placed in Denmark on a concentrated full-time academic training of from four to eight years in duration within an area of academic specialization. Such conceptions of academic education make it more difficult to develop flexible course offerings for the benefit of a broad sector of the population. It is beyond doubt that there is a great potential interest in the possibility of studying at the university level, but that the interested persons have neither the time nor the desire to undertake traditional academic education. The idea of a life-long learning process must also be implemented by the universities in a way which provides the population with an opportunity to take advantage of studies at a level which seems appropriate to them, at a time which is convenient to them, and in the place where they live and work. Supplying the population with educational opportunities of the kind described above requires, however, smaller university units which are evenly distributed throughout the whole country.

At present reforms like those discussed above are being initiated in university education. These are aimed primarily at continuing education of shorter duration and oriented more towards vocational application, in which the resources of several education institutions are used at the same time.

A second initiative is attempting to open the universities to all levels of the population, enabling them to take part in university seminars and to take examinations in stages, i.e. within a cumulative system. Unfortunately this attempt at reform has virtually collapsed almost before getting under way due to disputes between the competent institutions and due to lack of funding. To be sure, the door to the university has been left ajar, and interested students are permitted to occupy seats which happen to be vacant in a seminar or at a lecture, but no more than that. Apart from the fact that those who avail themselves of this opportunity are, to put it mildly, frustrated, since

this is not a genuine opportunity to study, even this limited opportunity exists only in university towns where an adequate number of courses is available.

An attempt to reform the universities by opening them to the public is only effective when courses offered are directed to the group which needs them in a way which take into account time factors, geographical considerations and organizational questions.

The most suitable institutions to offer such courses are at present the people's universities, possibly in conjunction with the newly established university study centres; both are uninhibited by considerations of academic prestige.

The function of the people's university is:

(1) to offer popular university level instruction in the form of colloquia, series of lectures, programmes of courses etc., and thus to contribute to the understanding of the techniques and content of research; and

(2) to widen knowledge of research results and thus to provide a link between scholarship, art and society.

Distributed throughout the country there are local committees and associations providing a comprehensive range of courses at the people's university. Each year approximately 20,000 to 25,000 persons take advantage of the programmes offered by the people's universities in Denmark. These are primarily short-term programmes such as lectures and courses consisting of 40-50 hours spread over 10 to 15 weeks. The interests of the people now are reflected in these programmes although previously no attempt was made to appeal to a particular group within the population; at present, however, there is a tendency to aim the programmes of the people's universities at specific groups.

In the university towns the people's universities function as independent institutions which collaborate with the universities. Outside university towns the above-mentioned committees and associations of the people's universities work together with local educational institutions, cultural institutions and the

authorities to set up a programme which supplements and supports other local programmes. Recruitment of teaching staff is carried out by a joint secretariat of the local committees.

In closing it might be mentioned that to date the Danish universities have not undertaken the training of adult educators or research within the field of adult education. It is probable that this will change soon, although it is an open question whether it is really desirable for the universities to be engaged in these activities.

UNIVERSITY ADULT EDUCATION IN FRANCE

György Széll

Introduction

In 1971 the French universities were confronted with the task of creating adult education institutions in addition to carrying out their normal teaching. Although initiatives in this direction, albeit infrequent ones, had been taken since the 1950's, the universities were caught completely unprepared. The May of 1968 had had a severe impact on the traditional university but it had left its basic structures more or less intact.

Once again the pressure to adapt to social needs had come from outside the university. The agreements of 1970 between employers' associations and trade unions had preceded the 1971 legislation.[1] The 1971 legislation merely compelled the state institutions to proceed in a direction which the economic developments and political struggles had predetermined.

Before examining in detail the functioning of the French adult education system, it is necessary to provide a brief analysis of the economic and political background to university adult education in France.

The present crisis of the university in all of the so-called industrialized countries is merely a symptom of a long-concealed malaise. If one examines the societies which are most important

from this point of view (France, Great Britain, the USA and the Federal Republic of Germany), it is apparent that in the Federal Republic of Germany there are (despite numerous attempts to form them) no elite universities, no "ivy league schools" (frequently private) relegating other universities to a second class status, in particular with regard to the subsequent achievement of an outstanding career by the graduates of such universities. Those students who do not pass the entrance examinations to the elite institutions in France, Great Britain and the USA frequently see themselves as second class students. This may be the cause of numerous conflicts which are usually generated from within these "second class" institutions. Here it is particularly obvious how imperfectly society has realized the goal of equal opportunity.

At present, two aspects of the university as an institution are being questioned: its educational function; and its contribution to research. The participation of the traditional university in general education[2] always conformed to the requirements of bourgeois society, although it was not very closely related to the development of specific vocational skills.[3] It trained high-level executive personnel for the private and public sector, whose main qualifications were the ability to perform their functions and duties conscientiously, highly efficiently and without asking a great deal of questions. This high-level personnel was rewarded by social status, some privileges and also financially.

In general the students were overtaxed by the lectures, examinations etc. Thus the system succeeded in simultaneously creating an awareness of being an elite, i.e. an association with the interest of the ruling class and an individual inferiority complex.

This situation, which predominated up to and into the 1960's, was changed by a set of factors, namely through the dissolution of the petit bourgeoisie due to a process of increasing industrialism and concentration, through the failure of neo-colonialism, and through the reemergence of the tendency

to a drop in the profit rate. All of these tendencies were directly related to a number of political contradictions. The expropriation of the middle class was to a degree compensated for by the distribution of and access to intellectual capital (diplomas etc.), which became available to children from middle class families. In order to meet the demand, a large number of teaching positions had to be created within the post-secondary level of education. The so-called "discount universities" profited particularly from this situation, universities which, with a minimal technical expenditure, were usually competent for arts subjects.[4] These educational institutions had the additional advantage that they were able to conceal for a certain period of time the non-employment of several hundred thousand young people.

Utilising extra profits from unfair exchange or by direct exploitation of the Third World, it was possible to indulge in the luxury of an educational reform with a considerable increase in the number of places for students. The argument was frequently used that this would benefit the formation of an elite in the Third World countries. However, the costs of colonial and neo-colonial wars, and particularly the defeats suffered in these wars, restricted the freedom of action of cities and states alike.

In the wake of May 1968 it was possible to make a series of demands in the field of adult education which in 1970 and 1971 became law.

The present structures of the French adult education system result from an agreement between employers and trade unions, to which the State provides the framework. The vast majority of Frenchmen have developed a political awareness which strongly emphasizes individuality. This was characteristic of the 1798 revolution, and of all subsequent ones. Even today this expresses itself in distrust and criticism of anyone who restricts individual freedoms. I think that this fact is vital to the understanding of the French education system, both with regard to its structure and to its content. Finally, it is necessary

to make one additional observation in order to explain the peculiarities of the French situation. France is still a country with a considerable feudal pre-capitalistic, pre-industrial legacy. The flat land, the traditional middle class with their ideas based on utilitarian value rather than exchange value, (this applies even to a considerable proportion of the entrepreneur class, which is amongst the most conservative in the world),[5] cast doubts on a series of goals of so-called industrial civilisation, such as mobility etc.

The Framework Conditions

The agreements of 1970 and the law of July 16, 1971 provide every employee in France with the right to a maximum of one year of continuing education during working hours.[6] The employer is obliged to pay for this education and, since 1976, to spend one per cent of his wage bill for this purpose (originally it was to be two per cent). There are four ways of conducting continuing education:

(1) at the place of employment itself, for the company's own employees;
(2) at the place of employment, for third parties;
(3) the employees as a group can take part in public or private courses outside their place of employment;[7] and
(4) each individual can select available courses on a personal basis.

If the employer does not honour these obligations, he must pay the State a sum equivalent to that not spent for such purposes. Since 1973 the university adult education departments have had to develop courses for industrial companies. Naturally a whole series of problems arose. The universities were forced to make decisions on the following basic questions of university adult education:

(1) Specialized or general education
(2) Elitist or universal education

(3) Orientation towards trade unions or employers
(4) Cooperation or competition with similar private or public institutions
(5) Size of the institution
(6) Standard programmes taken directly from normal course offerings or alternatives
(7) Role and position within the university
(8) Participation in research
(9) Form of recruitment of instructors
(10) Status of faculty at the continuing education departments
(11) Collective or individual course offerings.

The Example of Paris Dauphiné

In the following an attempt will be made to demonstrate the possible solution to the problems listed above by a description and analysis of the University of Paris IX-Dauphiné.[8] This seems to be an appropriate, even exemplary model. Admittedly Paris Dauphiné is not typical in a statistical or other sense; quite the contrary. Paris Dauphiné is one of the largest continuing education institutions in France, e.g. in terms of the number active there.

The University of Paris Dauphiné itself is not a normal French university, as it is a special case. It was established in 1969 in order to create in Europe something similar to the Harvard Business School. The course offerings are more directly related than at other institutions to the needs of the students. The courses are structured according to study phases (cycles) and are thus inter-disciplinary. It is a relatively small university with 5,000 students and 270 full-time faculty members. The classes are held in small groups (maximum 30). There is a Centre for Teaching Methods in Adult Education as well as a Centre for Research on Universities. During the period of study a practicum period of several months is required. These unusual framework conditions make it possible to deal extensively with all the problems occurring within adult education. Hence

rash generalizations should be avoided.

Specialised or General Education

The most important decision for a continuing education system is between vocational and general education. It determines all subsequent decisions. Certainly an attempt can be made to satisfy the needs of both, but usually one of the two will be neglected. The position of the employers is clear. They are interested only in supporting an education which is profitable in the shortest period of time, i.e. is primarily vocational. To this end the employers have established a dozen institutions which oversee or organize education of this kind. Under these conditions it is obviously best, where it is practical, for the individual company to offer adult education itself, using external help only where required. The universities which compete in this market must thus offer a programme which meets these requirements. This is all the more necessary because the works councils, who are obliged by law to collaborate in the working-out of the continuing education programmes within the industrial companies, have fulfilled such functions very inadequately up till now. Only a few works councils have been active in this field. For them the universities are quite important because the unions have very limited funds. Up till now the unions on the whole have been relatively unwilling to work with the universities, despite the fact that the universities are usually regarded with distrust by the employers as well (too leftish, too theoretical, too soft).

Thus the situation which we find at present is that the university continuing education department cannot ignore the interests of the employers in specialised education, but they can very easily ignore the unions and works councils.

However, one fairly important factor remains which cannot be overlooked, namely individual interests; all surveys and statistics on this subject agree. The majority desire vocationally oriented courses.[9] Under existing circumstances it would be surprising if this was not so.

Thus the decision in favour of the Service d'Education Permanate of the University of Paris Dauphiné was relatively simple to reach. Apart from a few short courses (12-40 hours, occasionally up to 80 hours) in English and an introduction to economics, course offerings are entirely vocationally oriented. The most important areas at present are industrial management,[10] purchasing (in the public service),[11] public health,[12] and industrial management and applied economics (Mali) and the management and economics of development (Algeria).[13] The main purpose of all of these courses is to increase the student's skills for his or her present or future employment or, if he or she is unemployed, to reintegrate them into the work force. These courses, which were created at the initiative of the employers or the State, are sometimes linked to the possibility of promotion in order to offer a stronger motivation to the students.

Elitist or Universal Education[14]

The decision in favour of the one or the other alternative is already implicit in the very level of the course. If the course is in advanced studies, only a small number of students can be expected. On a number of grounds it can be argued that the universities should limit themselves in their continuing education courses to the fields which are appropriate to them and that lower level institutions should give the less advanced, more basic courses. (Incidentally, in this matter the Communist union, CGT, take the same position as unions which have a clear right wing orientation). Certainly this is the easiest solution for the university. To adopt this solution would, however, make it impossible to realize the goal of those who have fought for the introduction of continuing education at the university level, namely the greater accessibility of the university to the outside world and thus increased contact with social realities.

Paris Dauphiné is attempting to implement both models at the same time. The course in industrial management is intended primarily for persons who have already graduated. The other

courses have unrestricted entry, having no formal admission requirements. A decision in favour of universal education and training as is practised at Nanterres University or Vincennes University is a very difficult one: it is mainly the managerial personnel who seek continuing education.[15] Furthermore, if one really wanted to achieve universal education it would outstrip the present capacities of the total university system.

Orientation Towards Trade Unions or Employers

It is the policy of Paris Dauphiné to encourage the participation of trade unions and employers. As long as a capitalistic society dominates in France, capital will directly or indirectly control the State. Under these circumstances no real choice exists in the field of continuing education. The most that can be achieved is to limit the influence of one side in favour of the other.

Cooperation or Competition

All universities find themselves in a difficult position. Admittedly for centuries the universities have been accustomed to competition, either academically or for funds from the State or private sources. However, they are not used to competition in its present form, namely where they must compete directly with private institutions in an educational market in the provision of educational offerings. Both in terms of courses and programmes, and in their personnel structure the universities were not prepared for this. One might imagine that they would form an alliance with private companies and institutions precisely in order to compensate for this disadvantage. To date, however, we know of not a single example of this occurring. This is understandable for even if in three years, at the latest, university adult education in France were to be financially self-supporting, their goals are too dissimilar. A private company must make a profit in order to survive. Hence a decision in favour of universal education or catering to the needs of the trade unions, however modest these may be, simply does not arise. Hence the only alternative for the university institutions

is to proceed jointly. In 1972 this took place for the Paris region (with its thirteen universities) with the establishment of the Interuniversity Continuing Education Centre (C.I.U.F.P.). The scope of the universities in the field of continuing education was not greatly limited by competition, since the old Paris university was divided up essentially by disciplines. Undoubtedly the intention is to preserve differences between the individual universities (which cannot be underestimated). The solution for Paris Dauphiné lies in cooperation as long as it does not endanger autonomy.

Size of the Institution

The decision as to the size of the continuing education department is determined directly by the alternatives already discussed. In order to offer elitist education it is not necessary to exceed a certain size. One could almost say it is essential not to exceed it. On the other hand the transformation of the entire university into a continuing education institution is entirely conceivable. The present optimum seems to be a small unit within the university with approximately fifteen full-time faculty members as at Dauphiné or Grenoble.

Routine Programme or Alternatives

Many of those active in adult education within the university hoped that through adult education, which requires the reassessment of previous methods and course contents, the university itself could be reassessed. Here too, however, existing structures prove to be very firmly rooted. It is naturally easier to simply repeat the courses which are normally offered than to consider the needs of students who have completely different backgrounds. Moreover, the students who have been conditioned by their social backgrounds to respect university traditions, themselves frequently want to have lectures of a traditional kind. However, genuine adult education would have to utilize the experience of the students, involving them in the elaboration of programmes and modifying courses so as to correspond to needs

which are developing and manifesting themselves. This,however, requires a great effort by everyone who is involved, and as long as behaviour of this kind is not the norm, and as long as each programme leads to a diploma or some other certificate, ideas such as these can hardly be put into practice.

Nevertheless Dauphiné has implemented new models. The Programme in Health Education was worked out between both sides in close cooperation. The courses are given in the work place and since the training is completely new, it was worked out jointly by the continuing education department and those involved in the programme. The situation is similar with the Programme in Purchasing in the Public Service. In neither case does a comparable programme exist within normal university course offerings. The teaching of these courses was, incidentally, monitored by the University Pedagogical Service.[16] The programme for the training of unemployed managerial personnel and that for Algerian educators have a more traditional character. Within these programmes courses from the normal university programmes dominate. They are, however, condensed and reorganized for this purpose. Approximately one third of the programme is made up of courses in psycho-sociology and methodology etc. In the short courses very limited funding has made it necessary to offer a condensed version of the normal course.

Role and Position of the Continuing Education Department Within the University

By virtue of its present size alone the continuing education department is unable to play an important role within the university. It is virtually impossible for those participating in the courses to band together and represent their common interests within university governing bodies. The most that they can do is to intervene via the trade union representative in the Administrative Council or make direct representation to the Adult Education Commission. Adult education is regarded by the university as something alien to its function which has to be carefully monitored. On the other hand it does offer a

number of university faculty members an opportunity to supplement their often modest earnings.

In France, university students are not interested in continuing education, nor is the university administration, for it means additional work and new problems to be coped with. There are also very different models for the establishment of continuing education departments and their relationship to the university. They exist as a joint institution representing all departments, or they may be directly responsible to the President, or each department may regard continuing education as its own affair.[17] Dauphiné has adopted the model where the continuing education department is directly responsible to the President with a Control Commission based on one third parity (university, trade unions and employers), which in turn is subject to the Council. This model appears to guarantee the greatest degree of flexibility under present circumstances.

Participation in Research

Adaptation to the needs of the students in the continuing education courses presupposes an analysis of these needs. A change in the methodology and the development of new course content must draw on research data. However, research is a luxury -- especially if the continuing education department must be self-supporting -- and hence cannot be conducted without difficulties. However, even the teaching staff of a continuing education department need continuing education, and research provides an opportunity for this. This can be accomplished through outside research contracts funded from budget surplus or by granting teaching staff certain periods of days for research. In the present case both methods are used.

Recruitment of Instructors

It would be the simplest solution to use regular university teachers for instructional purposes, but since faculty are usually reluctant to devise and apply new teaching methods

and course content for continuing education, it is frequently necessary to employ persons who are active outside the university and have a different professional background. However, if one wants to exploit the potential of the university and to change it through adult education, this is not the ideal solution. At the moment both faculty and persons from outside the university are being used at Dauphiné.

Status of the Faculty at the Continuing Education Department

Here, too, there could be a simple solution. The university faculty could be simultaneously responsible for continuing education. However, since such activities are not recognized, they have no positive influence on individual academic advancement. From this point of view they are completely uninteresting for faculty. Hence if assistants take over this kind of teaching, they do so only as a subsidiary activity, in order to have more time for their research and thus to improve their qualifications. In order to employ full-time teaching staff a continuing education department requires a sound financial basis and the status of these teachers must be clearly defined. Since these positions depend on the funds which derive from the programmes and projects carried out, they are just as insecure as in any other small-scale operation. Thus the continuing education teaching staff work at the university without secure civil-service status. In order to find qualified personnel the continuing education departments are frequently forced to pay above-average salaries to compensate for the risks which are involved. The teachers at these continuing education departments are not faculty -- even if they usually have had the same training -- neither are they, however, administrative employees. These positions thus create countless problems relating to job classification and career progress. What can one do after this kind of teaching? One has moved away from one's field of speciality and there is little choice but to specialize within the adult education system.

Collective or Individual Course Offerings

One further fundamental decision must be made: are course offerings to be aimed at groups or at individuals? The argument in favour of courses aimed at individuals is based on a distrust of capitalist enterprises as consumer of continuing education programmes. The argument runs that without the control of company management it is possible to provide individuals with a more critical education. This alternative seems wrong to me. Even the individual who participates in education programmes is usually intent on improving his social situation. He tries, therefore, to solve his problems -- which are not individual in nature but social and economic -- on an individual basis. This certainly will not change the world. On the other hand a course which deals with the real and specific problems of the industrial plant where one is employed is more likely to lead to solutions.

Paris Dauphiné: Quo Vadis?

If one attempts to evaluate the University of Paris Dauphiné model, it is evident that favourable circumstances (committed university personnel, a new university and new legislation etc.) made possible the creation of an institution which in many respects can be regarded as a model. However, the present situation is not completely free from the danger of crises. The development of the Continuing Education Department was stimulated by the general political trend in university affairs; it was the "in thing". However, in a situation of crisis, if the anticipated and desired successes from university adult education are not achieved, failure is quite possible. In my opinion all of the personnel at the Continuing Education Department should reach a common agreement on the situation in order to be able to deal more effectively with difficulties, for difficulties will doubtless arise in increasing numbers in the foreseeable future. It is necessary to develop a common point of view, a more broadly based system of reponsibility and a political

orientation which would link the Continuing Education Department more intimately with the general interests of society.

Conclusion

In conclusion it can be said that in recent years adult education has established itself within the French universities without changing them. Certainly the situation is hardly to be compared to that which prevailed in the sixties. Nevertheless, university adult education in France, too, is still encountering far too many difficulties both within the universities and outside them. Not only is it forced to defend itself on a free educational market against competitors from the private sector, but it is also confronted with almost greater difficulties within the universities, be it from the faculty, the students, the academic administration or the administrative committees etc. In addition to this, the State tends to promote public institutions other than the universities for the purpose of offering adult education programmes.[18] Finally, the difficulties within the continuing education departments must not be underestimated: the creation of new structures which conflict with individual and collective needs, the devising of new methods and course content, often in conflict with the expressed wishes of course participants. Hence, anyone who is involved in university adult education must fight a fierce battle on several fronts in order to survive.

Is this, however, a futile struggle? Many believe that after the promising beginning of 1972 university adult education no longer has any prospects in France. If my broad assessments in the first part of this paper are correct, the entire university has no choice but to change itself into an adult education institution. The present social and economic structures do not permit the additional annual employment of 200,000 managerial personnel. The universities will therefore produce people who are unable to find employment. In the long term that will not be economically or politically acceptable.

The reform of the second study phase at the beginning of

1976 and the additional selection this introduced, demonstrates this clearly. The universities will therefore shrink to half their present enrollment; (the elitist universities obviously will not be affected by this development). What can be done to utilize this released capacity? Do not almost all employees have a genuine need of education and further training? (Approximately 10 per cent are after all already engaged in continuing education under the 1971 Law Concerning Paid Educational Leave.) In order to achieve greater democracy within society, industry, and the pulibc service, is it not essential for each individual to acquire increased competence and greater knowledge?[19]

NOTES

1 G. Kneten gives a brief and informative survey in "Universitäre Erwachsenenbildung in Frankreich", AUE Informationen 44, 74.

2 90-95 per cent of the academicians never achieved any really responsible positions in their lifetime.

3 The essential desirable qualifications were discipline, loyalty, subordination and, at the same time, a certain ability to manage those at lower stages of the hierarchy.

4 See in particular the article by Keiler and Vahrenkamp: "Bildungsboom und Produktion", in Neues Forum, 1974, Vol. 24, 1&2, pp. 38-43, Vol. 24, No. 3, pp. 47-52.

5 Probably together with the Japanese.

6 Here I am basing myself on the texts compiled by the C.N.I.P.E.: Luttriger, J.M.: "Le droit des travailleurs à la formation", Paris 1976; "Vos droits au congé formation", 1972; "Les Institutions de la formation permanente et leur rôle", Paris 1974.

7 The programmes are frequently conducted by organizations established specifically for this purpose. As was the case in the Federal Republic of Germany following passage of the Law Concerning the Promotion of Employment, a genuine educational market was created after the passage of the 1971 Law, an education industry which broke the quasi-state-monopoly; after all one per cent of gross national income is a considerable sum of money.

8 I spent February to April of 1976 teaching and engaged in research in the Service d'Education Permanente of the University of Paris Dauphiné. Further information about this Continuing Education Department can be obtained by writing directly to Guy Jobert, Directeur du S.E.P., Université Paris IX (Dauphiné), Pl. du Maréchal de Lattre de Tassigny, F-75 776 PARIX CEDEX 16, France, or through the following publications: Jobert, G.: "Une approche de

l'éducation premanente en milieu universitaire", in Education Permanente, 27, pp. 31-49; Jobert, G.: "Politique et stratégie d'implantation de la formation continue en milieu universitaire", in Connexions, 16/1975, pp. 93-106; "Formation continue", in Le Monde de l'Education, Déc. 1974, pp. 49-51; Jobert, G.; Cohen, E.; Delassus, D. and Million, M.: "Le Service éducation permanente de l'Université Paris Dauphiné", in Pour, No. 42/1975, pp. 21-29.

9 Secrétariat d'Etat auprès du Premier Ministre, Formation Professionelle: La Formation Professionelle continue en quelques chiffres, Paris, novembre 1975; I.F.O.P., 1972, 1973, 1974, 1975.

10 This involved a programme for unemployed managerial personnel lasting 17 weeks, with a practicum of 6 weeks. Various forms of state funding were provided, appropriate to the needs of individuals, who drew up to 110 per cent of their last net income.

11 Up until now this has been essentially a research programme to develop a curriculum for educators in the public finance sector, in order to train personnel responsible for purchasing. The training programme is intended exclusively for middle rank and top rank civil servants.

12 This one-year full-time programme is intended for training hospital personnel in managerial techniques. The programme leads to a nationally recognized Master's examination which was created for this purpose. The university entrance examination is not an admission requirement; however, six years of professional experience are a prerequisite. See: Million, M.; Cohen, E.: "Une formation superieure pour les cadres hospitaliers: signification et enjeux organisationnels", in: Education Permanente, No. 29, May-June 1975, pp. 127-143 and footnote 11, final reference, pp. 24-29.

13 There are two different programmes, both of which are financed by the French Ministry for Development Assistance. The goal of these two programmes which last two years, of which one year is spent at the place of future employment, is to train instructors in the financial or economic sector of the public service. The graduates are awarded a French diploma, if Algerian, or a Mali diploma, for those from Mali.

14 "Formation permanente. Illusion ou révolution?", in: Politique Aujourd'hui, Sept./Oct. 1975 (spéciale), pp. 1-120.

15 Secrétariet d'Etat auprès du Premier Ministre, Formation Professionelle, op. cit.

16 Hameline, D.: "Les universitaires et la formation des adultes", in EP 30, pp. 28-36. The trade unions at the University of Paris Dauphiné have concluded a contract with the University President for the non-academic university personnel, under

which a programme consisting of 300 hours per annum is organized by the S.E.P. for those employees.

17 The University of Paris at Vincennes seems to be moving in this direction, having a proportion of over 50 per cent of it students who have no university entrance examination or similar qualifications, although this has not been announced as official policy.

18 The policy of the A.D.E.P., the official agency for the coordination of the adult education programme, is unambiguous in this respect. This was confirmed in a personal interview which I had with the competent official at the Secrétariat d'Etat auprès du Premier Ministre, Formation Professionelle. This may be because non-university adult education appears to be less expensive and less critical.

19 Without mentioning self-administration here.

THE PARTICIPATION OF THE UNIVERSITIES IN ADULT EDUCATION IN THE FEDERAL REPUBLIC OF GERMANY

Hans-Dieter Raapke

"The universities shall serve the goals of continuing education and shall participate in organized continuing education. They shall promote the continuing education of their own personnel." The foregoing is a quotation from Para. 3 of Section 2 of the Basic University Law (1976) of the Federal Republic of Germany. Seventy-nine years earlier the Senate of Berlin University had rejected a request from a group of prominent scholars for the institutionalising of popularizing university courses within the framework of the university, because "the university is limited by Section 1 of the University Statutes to the instruction of suitably prepared young persons for the purpose of their entry into the service of the State and the Church."[1] The difference between these quotations is striking. However, up until now relatively few steps have been taken to implement the provisions of the Basic University Law. One of the most important steps in this direction is the establishment of continuing education departments at some universities. The Basic University Law of 1976 provides a legislative basis for and extends the work that was begun in Goettingen in 1955, namely the first large-scale and long-term attempt to resume, through university seminar courses, the participation of the university in adult education which had ceased after the First World War.

The participation of the univeristies in adult education does not have an uninterrupted tradition in Germany. It is true that at the end of the last century there was a significant movement in Austria in favour of university extension, which in part spread towards Germany, due to the untiring efforts of the Viennese historian Ludo Moritz Hartmann. However, immediately after the First World War all of this activity ceased and was soon forgotten. Hence the specific model for the new start which occurred in 1953 was primarily the extra-mural adult education of the English universities. Other countries did provide some stimulation and many points of contact were created. It is not by chance that those who resumed this work in Germany, or who supported it from abroad, were in many cases emigrants who had been forced to leave Germany during the National Socialist period.

The first university continuing education department was established in Goettingen in 1955/56, initially as a secretariat for seminar courses; subsequently it was taken over by the University as the Central Office for Extra-mural Seminar Courses.[2] In the period which followed, the universities of Berlin, Frankfurt, Freiburg, Cologne, Mainz and Muenster organized seminar courses, in some cases in substantial numbers, similar to those which had been given in Goettingen. However, the participation by these and other universities in adult education achieved the necessary continuity only when the requisite institutional organization was undertaken by the establishment of central offices and continuing education departments. This development was supported by the establishment of the Work Group for University Adult Education (AUE), which initially provided only a parent organization for all existing continuing education departments, or those which were being created at that time, and only later undertook its own projects in the field of university continuing education.

Thus in 1973, when the Federal-Provincial Commission for Educational Planning foresaw the setting-up of continuing education departments at all universities, this was a continuation

of the existing trend. However, it was unrealistic to expect the existing universities to have achieved the establishment of such continuing education departments by as early as 1975. In 1975 the Work Group for University Adult Education compiled a survey of the situation twenty years after the establishment of the first Secretariat for Seminar Courses in Goettingen.[3] There were now continuing education departments in Berlin, Goettingen, Hannover, Mainz and Oldenburg. In Frankfurt and Marburg university continuing education has been integrated within existing central units of the university. In Bochum and Cologne officials delegated by the Senate were at that time responsible for the participation of the university in adult education. At the University of Augsburg a Central Office for Contact-study had been in existence for some years, but its activities had more effect within the university than externally. There were also extra-mural institutes at the technical universities at Aachen and Stuttgart. Meanwhile, continuing education departments have been created in Bremen, Hamburg, Osnabrueck and recently Bamberg and Cassel. As their German name Kontaktstelle (contact office) suggests, these departments fulfill in general terms the role which was foreseen for them in the overall educational plan.*

The Federal Ministry of Education and Science, in keeping with its goal of promoting the establishment of continuing education departments as provided for in the overall educational plan, has supplied financial assistance to several of the continuing education departments for their initial experimental phase. Without this initial assistance it would scarcely have been possible, or at best only under far less favourable conditions, to establish these departments. These efforts, however, had brought results which now force us to draw the consequences. One of the most important is that the continuing education departments can realize their potential only if they no longer function merely as an intermediary between the university and

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* This role is described in some detail further on in this paper. The German continuing education departments differ significantly from their counterparts in the U.K. and in North America as well as Australia and New Zealand. (Editor's note).

the agencies engaged in adult education and instead themselves undertake developmental work in collaboration with those agencies. It has become very clear that the personnel allocated in the overall educational plan were too few for such wide-ranging functions as were foreseen.

Most of the ten continuing education departments are in North Germany. Four are in the Province of Lower Saxony: Goettingen, Hannover, Oldenburg and Osnabrueck. The remaining departments are in Berlin, Bremen and Hamburg. In contrast to those in other Federal Provinces the continuing education departments in Lower Saxony share some common features which have proved so effective in their operation, for their position within the university and their relationship to the agencies and institutions engaged in adult education as a whole, that elsewhere they are more and more frequently alluded to as the Lower Saxony Continuing Education Department Model. All of these continuing education departments have the characteristics of central institutions of the university, even if in individual cases this is less obvious. They are directly responsible to the University Rector or President and academically they are overseen by a special Senate Commission. The continuing education departments have their own academic and administrative personnel, for whom budgetary provision is made, as well as their own finances, even though these may not always be adequate. Outside the university the continuing education departments do not function as sponsors or independent organizers of adult education but only as intermediaries, "suppliers", or as partners. In this way competition with the agencies and institutions involved in adult education, competition of the kind which was once feared, has been avoided. In this situation, however, the continuing education departments in Lower Saxony provide the not insignificant proportion of 5 per cent of the total of instructional units in adult education within Lower Saxony. Nevertheless, no one would regard quantitative expansion as the most important contribution of the universities to adult education.

What Does the University Achieve for the Population in a Region by its Participation in Adult Education?

In recent decades the character of a university has been much more distinctly determined by the region from which it draws its students than was the case in the past. Similarly, the more it opens its doors to the broad mass of the population, the more it becomes a regional institution. As has been explicitly stated, the new universities established after 1945 were intended to better serve certain regions which previously had been neglected. Participation in the continuing education of the population is an important element in the services rendered by a university to its region. The question as to what a university can and should achieve has not been investigated exhaustively in terms of cause and effect. Nevertheless, almost twenty years of experience gathered through the seminar courses of the University of Goettingen, as well as those of a number of other universities, permit us to at least attempt some more accurate general discussion of the question.

In the Structural Plan for Continuing Education (Structural Plan for the Establishment of the Continuing Education System in the Federal Republic of Germany, 1975), a study group of independent university teachers attempted to show how the continuing education potential of the Federal Republic had reached its limit. In examining the way in which the population is supplied with courses in continuing education, we can recognize three important, different and typical deficiencies: social, regional and curricular deficiencies. By social deficiencies we mean that large sections and groups within the population are under-represented in continuing education. Regional deficiencies are apparent in remote rural areas in particular, but also in some urban regions. Curricular deficiencies exist mainly if certain possibilities in the field of continuing education are either unavailable to the population or have not been made available yet despite the fact that the need for them has long been recognized. Naturally it is rare that one of these deficiencies occurs in isolation. Frequently they are

merely different aspects of a high degree of underdevelopment of the continuing education system in a specific region. What can the university do to reduce these deficiencies?

In the first ten to fifteen years the agencies involved in continuing education frequently made use of the seminar courses in Lower Saxony, and particularly the Goettingen seminar courses, to compensate for the deficiencies or, to put it differently, to develop new areas in adult education or supplement those which had been under-developed. A few examples will clarify this.

Even in the sixties most adult education institutions, other than those which were residential, had very few or no full-time instructional staff. Even in most of the small-town and rural institutions there were hardly any local or part-time staff for political education, sociology or education courses. The original local teaching staff was usually made up of the language teachers, those who offered courses in office skills, and the like. Hence in many of the adult education institutions the university seminar courses were the first longer-term courses in political science, contemporary history, sociology or education. Even courses in economics and business administration were in some institutions first given as seminar courses under the supervision of university faculty members, because there was either no suitable local staff available or no contact had yet been made with them. Many people's universities, or other adult education institutions which wanted to develop new teaching areas, made use of the seminar courses, either because theological problems were to be incorporated within the programme and it was possible to ascertain in a neutral way the reaction of the churches if a seminar course was used which had been supplied by an outside source, or the universities were able to provide assistance which would not have been available locally when the new mathematics was first introduced into the school curriculum. Today almost all of these areas which started out as university seminar courses are part of the regular programme of the people's universities.

Even in the seventies these institutions still make use of

the university continuing education departments for curricula development of this kind. This, moreover, is a function which will probably remain a permanent one. At the University of Oldenburg, for example, up until now the areas of sociology and education and teacher-training were emphasized in the work done. This is doubtless due to the special resources of the University of Oldenburg. There is, however, in addition a direct relationship to the needs and the interests of the regional population, which requires more detailed investigation. Oldenburg's offerings in the fields of technology and natural science, on the other hand, have found a less ready acceptance, which is doubtless also due to the fact that the continuing education department has no teaching personnel who are experts in these areas.

The way in which the Oldenburg Continuing Education Department has worked is important within the general context of the approach that such developmental work can take. Like the Goettingen Continuing Education Department, for example, it undertook developmental work over a long period of time and in response to very specific requirements. On the one hand a very basic set of course offerings is required which can be, as it were, delivered in the form of a proven prefabricated product to the consumer. This has enabled the teaching staff of the continuing education department to devote themselves to other matters; it has ensured continuity and a certain standard of quality. On the other hand the staff of the continuing education department has also succeeded in creating within the institutions in the region an awareness that they can expect help from the Oldenburg Continuing Education Department in solving the problems which exist locally. Hence, when it seems necessary, the programmes are developed locally in cooperation between the teaching staff of the local institution and the Continuing Education Department.

This approach obviously has a positive effect on the attempt to overcome social deficiencies. These efforts had begun in Goettingen in two ways. In cooperation with local institutions, certain courses were always aimed at specific groups. For example,

courses in labour laws were aimed at active trade unionists; questions of education and the school were directed at parents and teachers. If it became apparent in an adult education institution that, for example, the workers at a certain plant, or the people in a certain vocation were not to be found in local courses, an attempt was made frequently, using seminar courses tailored to the interests of this particular group, to interest at least initially relatively specific groups. This was then, as it is today, a method which involves a great deal of work but which is very rewarding. In addition the Goettingen Secretariat for Seminar Courses attempted to utilise social and demographic data to check as accurately as possible which groups within the population were over-represented or under-represented and in which courses; this was done in order to offer courses aimed more accurately at specific target groups. That had not been the practice hitherto in German adult education but meanwhile it has developed into a technique practised almost everywhere as a method of achieving maximum effectiveness.

The continuing education departments have made intensive use of approaches of this kind in order to overcome social deficiencies. In addition there has been further refinement of methods involving the scrutiny of the relationships between courses offered and the make-up of participants.

The results continue to show that by directing courses at a specific group the proportion of socially disadvantaged persons can also be increased within the overall seminar course enrollment, but that the seminar courses alone cannot serve to overcome social deficiencies, since seminar courses tend to bring to the institutions new students from groups within the population which are not socially underprivileged and probably did not participate in continuing education for other reasons. This, too, is important for local recognition of the institutions involved in continuing education. Twenty years ago about half of those enrolled in seminar courses had never previously participated in adult education courses. Even today the proportion of this type of student is probably relatively high.

In addition, another method has also been vigorously applied, namely the attempt to interest underprivileged segments of the population in continuing education, i.e. those who are unaccustomed to studying.

In Lower Saxony this work directed at specific groups, begun in Goettingen, was helped by the Law on Paid Educational Leave. Courses for students on paid educational leave have made it possible, above all, for perople to return to organized studies long after they have left school and without the pressures involved in their job. It is true that only a few of those who are entitled to educational leave have taken advantage of it. However, that should not be regarded merely as negative, since it is questionable whether the adult education institutions would be capable of coping with a larger number of applicants. The concept of paid educational leave requires both an expansion of the capacity of the institutions and, to some extent, a number of additional pedagogical concepts some of which have not yet been devised. It is precisely in this area that the instructional staff of the continuing education departments, together with the university faculty and that of the local institutions, have made a significant contribution.

Another aspect of the efforts which have been made to reduce social deficiencies is the active coordinating and advisory role played by the Oldenburg Continuing Education Department in the organization of courses intended to prepare students who have not previously completed the normal university entrance requirements. Another, and to a large extent related activity of the university continuing education departments, is the upgrading of personnel in their own university, which is obviously a completely new field of experience.

The regional deficiencies in continuing education programmes available to the population are usually the most striking ones. Oldenburg again may serve as an example. Oldenburg University is situated in a region which was, and still is, characterized by significant deficiencies in educational and social institutions. The symptoms of these deficiencies are premature school-leaving,

few schools for further studies, a shortage of kindergartens and institutions for the handicapped and, in general, inadequately developed continuing education institutions.

Long ago, before the continuing education departments existed at Hannover and Oldenbrug, the initiative of some directors of the people's universities in East Friesland, together with the Goettingen Secretariat, was responsible for an attempt to create a kind of alliance between the people's universities which would make it possible to utilise the teaching staff of the Goettingen Seminar Courses for a whole series of courses in this area. The Working Group of the East Friesland People's Universities which was formed later, continued and even intensified this close cooperation with the Oldenburg Continuing Education Department. Efforts were made from Goettingen, and later from Hannover, to help in the opening-up of certain regions. Of necessity this was possible only within a narrow area. However, it soon became clear that even this area was too extensive and thus the Osnabrueck Continuing Education Department was organized. As soon became obvious, developmental work of this nature must proceed on several levels. Seminar courses as an organizational form remain, as it were, the basis for the work of the continuing education department. Seminar courses are a vital component in the general basic courses in continuing education. Naturally, individual seminar courses can assume special functions, e.g. initial help for a specific area of studies or the continuation of programmes which were locally developed.

The specifics of regional development are primarily on the one hand to make the regional problems the very topic of continuing education courses and, on the other hand, to link basic education of this kind, at least for a time, with the concentration on specific multiplier groups. The Oldenburg Continuing Education Department organized for this purpose, for example, continuing education courses for educators; these addressed themselves both to professional teaching staff in pre-school education as well as to non-professionals, i.e. supervisors of play schools. Another example would be courses for parents of handicapped

children; these courses do not form part of the standard programme of teacher training courses but rather are developed on the basis of regional problems. A third aspect of such work are the courses for the upgrading of teaching staff in general and vocational continuing education. The NQ Project (Development and Testing of Qualifying Seminars for Par-time Continuing Education Instructors), which is very closely linked with the continuing education department, was also one of the projects which were an off-shoot of this kind of activity by the continuing education departments.

In these areas it is impossible for anyone to separate completely the interaction of group continuing education and the continuing education of individual students. However, within the context of organization and of individual initiatives, the distinction between the various areas of emphasis is more important and it is significant that here a further area of emphasis has been developed in teaching practice, which is closely related to the work of distance education.

Obviously it would be unrealistic to assume that efforts towards regional development can immediately have a widespread effect and, as it were, cover an entire region. From time to time the continuing education departments have included maps in their reports. These show that the work of the continuing education departments can find ready acceptance only where adult education is already organized or is in the process of being developed. It is striking that the most intense activities of the Oldenburg Continuing Education Department have been in East Friesland and particularly in the area served by the People's University for the District at Norden and in Bentheim County, with Nordhorn as its centre. It is precisely in these places that the work of the people's universities has significantly increased, the clearest demonstration of which is their rapidly increasing professionalism. There is very little explanation for the fact that the work of the continuing education department in the Oldenburg district, or near Nordenham, is so much less widespread other than the inadequate development of the local

adult education institutions.

The question as to what the university achieves for the regional population through its participation in adult education naturally raises the related question: what do the regional population and the adult educational institutions do for the university? Initially it is very difficult to provide anything other than a very general answer. Few models or even traditions exist for this line of enquiry. The present and past conception of the university is that it is a publicly supported institution with a large measure of freedom of action. The universities devote a great deal of thought to many topics but hardly any to their own support. This is possibly one of the sources of some of the difficulties which occur in the collaboration between the universities and adult education institutions.

Many barriers between the universities and adult education institutions have existed and continue to exist, more in some European countries, less in others. The history of university adult education is at the same time a history of patient and painstaking efforts to dismantle these barriers. In recent decades several of such barriers have been removed, but some only temporarily and others have been erected in their place. Development proceeds very slowly. It requires considerable effort to establish new continuing education departments at universities. The senates of such universities express intense and complex reservations. The discussions seem endless, and what are the goals of this group or the other group? It is seldom possible to discover much about motivation and causal factors. Nevertheless, patiently but energetically, with conviction and continuity, on-going projects such as seminar courses and continuing education departments have gradually established themselves in the universities and within society at large, and continuing education has become a statutory obligation for the universities, in the Federal Republic of Germany.

NOTES

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2 Strzelewicz, W., Seminarkurse: Die Mitarbeit der Universität an der Erwachsenenbildung, Göttingen, 1959; Raapke, H.D.; Skowronek, H., Seminarkurse: Die Mitarbeit der Universität an der Erwachsenenbildung, Nieds. Kultusminister, Hannover, 1962.

3 AUE-Informationen, (Sonderheft 12), "Einrichtungen der Universitären Weiterbildung," Hannover, 1975.

THE ROLE OF UNIVERSITIES IN BRITISH ADULT EDUCATION

William Jones

In the English speaking countries universities have long played an important role in adult education. From pioneering days in the late nineteenth century when Cambridge and Oxford Universities launched the movement and gave it its distinctive liberal education flavour, most British universities have established extra-mural departments. In the early decades of the present century the Workers Educational Association (WEA) became a close partner of the universities in contrast to the Local Education Authority (LEA) colleges of further and adult education which have expanded along independent lines to become the largest providers in the area. The current success of the Open University -- awarding degrees based upon correspondence courses backed by broadcast programmes -- has set new challenges for traditional university extra-mural departments.

Origins of University Adult Education

Someone once suggested that university extra-mural teaching bears the same relationship to knowledge as the Salvation Army does to religion.[1] Not such an absurd comparison when it is considered that both movements were founded at approximately the same time and in response to the social conditions produced

by the Industrial Revolution. Moreover, when contrasted with the sedate ratiocinations of traditional scholarly activity, extra-mural education has always had a populist missionary flavour and its practitioners a dedication to the social applications of knowledge rather than to its pursuit for its own sake. The universities of Oxford and Cambridge were founded in the thirteenth century, yet even in the early nineteenth remained the exclusive preserves of the rich and well connected. They were jealous of their elitist position, resistant to change and resolutely blind to the social and economic earthquakes taking place around them.

In 1850 William Sewell of Exeter College, Oxford, submitted a paper to his Vice Chancellor, entitled Suggestions on University Extension, deploring Oxford's opulent exclusiveness and urging the founding of "professorships and lectureshipss ... in the great centres of manufacturing districts and in the midst of the densest population".[2] His peers rejected his proposals arguing that "What is needed is to place the best education within the reach of all qualified to receive; not to offer some solace to those who are excluded".[3] But in the ensuing two decades significant developments in secondary education, the growth of adult education in the form of the (religiously inspired) adult schools, the Mechanics Institutes, trade union and co-operative colleges, helped to produce a more receptive atmosphere for the initiative of James Stuart, a young assistant tutor at Cambridge.

His idea was to "establish a sort of peripatetic university, the professors of which would circulate among the big towns".[4] Unlike Sewell, who had been thinking in terms of degree courses, Stuart envisaged short, non-examination courses of lectures open to the general public. For a number of years Stuart had been answering invitations from cities in the north of England to deliver public lectures. Largely as a result of his efforts a Syndicate for Local Lecturers was set up in 1873 to send out lecturers to such places as Nottingham, Derby and Leicester: the first extra-mural department had been founded. The need had been articulated in the industrial north; the answer found

amongst a few enlightened men in one of England's ancient seats of learning. Stuart had hoped that his lecture courses would be attended mostly by working-class men but more often they attracted middle-class women; the problem remains over a century later.[5] The impact of the Cambridge initiative was considerable providing a catalyst to the establishment of Extra-Mural Departments in London (1876) and Oxford (1878). It also gave a vital stimulus, through the success of extra-mural lectures, to the establishment of full universities in such cities as Nottingham, Sheffield, Leeds, Exeter and Reading. But these new universities soon began, like most British universities in the present day, to provide full-time degree courses for young people aged between eighteen and twenty-one. Ironically therefore, Stuart's attempt to reject the middle-class elitism of Oxford and Cambridge fertilised the growth of new institutions which came to emulate this same model.

At the turn of the century the extra-mural movement, backed by the prestige of Oxford and Cambridge, had placed itself in the forefront of adult education endeavour, setting a pattern of short public courses on the humanities and science which disseminated liberal education i.e. not connected with examinations or career, to those who had not enjoyed a university education. Whilst the emphasis was on non-examination courses, extra-mural work could count towards the achievement of a degree. Cambridge, for example, provided an extended plan of study over three years entitling successful students to be called "Students affiliated to the University" and to exemption from the first year of a three year residential degree course.[6]

The movement was now sufficiently accepted to attract satire in the press. Its tendency to employ impoverished young academics led it to be described as a movement "officered by boys for the benefit of young ladies" and its appeal for the academic with a social conscience to attract the title "the harmless hobby of the democratic don". But some criticism was acid accusing the movement of a "cheap dilettantism" or of purveying the "second rate at secondhand".[7] Some of this criticism was no doubt

deserved but much of it, as today, emanated from people unwilling to prosiletize knowledge outside university confines and unaware of the special teaching requirements of adult education.

Partnership with the Workers Educational Association

The character of the movement changed with the inception of the WEA set up in 1903, two years after the foundation of the Labour Party. The WEA was the creation of Albert Mansbridge, a socialist, member of the Co-operative movement, churchman and adult educator. His aim was to equip the working class, especially its trade union leaders, with the education they had missed when younger. A network of volunatry WEA branches was set up essentially to liaise with the extra-mural department in organizing, publicizing and running joint classes. The WEA therefore, from the start was a consumers organization for university classes and much of its present day problems derive from the secondary role it has always played. Following the 1902 Education Act government grants helped bring class fees within the reach of working people. Very soon most university work was being carried out jointly with the WEA. These new classes required a more systematic approach than Stuart's short series of one hour lectures preceded by a handout and reading list and followed by a discussion and the setting of essay topics. The three year tutorial class was born. This entailed a small group working closely with their university tutor, listening to informal lectures, engaging in wide-ranging discussion and writing fortnightly essays throughout a total of seventy-two meetings. By 1912 the Secretaries of the Oxford and Cambridge extra-mural departments felt able to describe their work as "one of the greatest unifying forces in the social life of modern England".[8] This was perhaps an exaggeration as even in 1914 the number of students involved in tutorial classes was only 3,345.[9]

The 1919 Report and Interwar Developments

In 1919 a historic report appeared, entitled the Final Report of the Adult Education Committee of the Ministry of Reconstruction, which urged the establishment of an extra-mural department with an academic head at every university in Britain. Liberal education for adults, said the report, should be a standard part of university provision organized by these departments and financed from local and national public funds. During the 1920s extra-mural departments were established at Nottingham, Aberystwyth, Manchester, Exeter, Hull, Leicester, Southampton and Durham. From the outset structures varied. In some cases extra-mural department directors had professional status, in others not. In some cases association with the WEA was very close, in others remote. However, most departments now had full-time tutors who had a teaching and development role in districts where they were resident. Often their work complemented the organizational efforts of WEA branches and their own full-time tutors. But considerable duplication of effort emerged in some areas exacerbated by the difficulty of allocating distinctive roles to the two agencies (or Responsible Bodies as they have become to be called) in a country where adult education provision was still developing and uneven. Official regulations in 1924 intended universities to provide higher level, more cerebral courses than the WEA and the Local Education Authorities(LEAs), but in practice much overlap existed. The emergent LEA provision varied in type and quality. Most LEAs concentrated upon vocational studies, i.e. connected with work, and tended to ignore liberal education, but some like Cambridgeshire with its Village Colleges were very innovative.[10]

Postwar Developments

Local Education Authorities

The 1944 Education Act imposed a (albeit rather vague)

statutory duty upon local councils to provide educational facilities for adults. Most LEAs now take this responsibility very seriously and work has expanded to the extent that over two million students now attend non-vocational classes engaging the efforts of over 1,000 full-time and 80,000 part-time staff. The majority of classes occur in the evening, once a week between September and April, do not lead to examinations and are mostly concerned with physical or practical activities, foreign languages, arts and crafts, music and drama.[11] In addition, LEAs give financial help and accommodation to voluntary societies, like the Women's Institutes and Townswomen's Guilds, when they engage in educational activities.[12]

Workers Educational Association

In the last twenty years the full-time staff of the WEA has doubled to over 100 but its work has been overshadowed by the rapid expansion of the extra-mural departments; jointly organized classes have slumped to less than 20 per cent of their work. The WEA has rather lost its partnership role and some critics maintain it has yet to find a new one. Frequently voiced is the criticism that the WEA has been too concerned to copy the extra-mural department model. But the army of WEA voluntary workers should not be underestimated nor its range of introductory courses for the public undervalued; some of them are of a "standard comparable in every aspect to many classes provided by university responsible bodies".[13] Moreover, following the recommendations of the government Russel Report in 1973 the WEA is seeking to develop its own considerable interest in work for industrial workers and socially disadvantaged groups.[14]

Extra-Mural Departments

Structure

Since the war the number of the extra-mural departments has increased to thirty-eight employing some 340 full-time and 10,000 part-time tutors.[15] Three-quarters of their salaries are

paid for out of Department of Education and Science funds the rest being made up by the University Grants Council, a semi-independent body set up by the Government to administer block grants for the running of universities. Over a dozen of the newer departments receive no DES grant and derive money from other sources.

The structure and organization of the departments tends to reflect internal university attitudes towards them. Some are accepted as a natural and valuable part of university life and others are regarded as mere appendages, irrelevant afterthoughts. The same elitist values which led to the rejection of Sewell's original plan live on in many university Senate committee meetings. Accordingly, the academic status of departmental heads still varies but generally it is rising; illustrative of this trend is the Manchester directorship which has recently been promoted to professorial level. Another development reflecting and reinforcing this trend, has been the gradual replacement of the resident tutor system by campus-based departments with well organized administrative support, proper offices for tutors and a high proportion of classes held on university premises. Some critics argue that this tendency has removed tutors away from the grass roots. Defenders point out that the departments are now better placed to fight for more resources for their neglected area and to help break down the barriers of privilege and mysticism which have long separated British universities from the rest of society. Campus-based extra-mural departments tend to employ tutors with responsibility to a subject rather than to a geographical area. Subject tutors have often shown great initiative and energy in tapping latent demand; "To give one instance, courses for social workers in one area, which numbered 9 with 177 enrolments before a staff tutor was appointed, increased in five years to 52 with 955 enrolments".[16]

Liberal Education Courses

Two-thirds of the work of the extra-mural departments -- involving annually over 200,000 students -- is still in the traditional area of liberal education; over one half in the

humanities (archaeology, history, literature, philosophy and art), 13 per cent in the sciences and most of the rest in industrial studies and social sciences. In this field the departments might typically offer courses -- advertised in a variety of ways -- ranging from three-year tutorial classes, to sessional classes of 20-24, short courses of 6-10 meetings, day schools, single lectures, residential weekend schools and summer schools. Certificate or diploma courses have been a big growth area. London, always particularly interested in this field have as many as 5,000 of their annual 20,000 students engaged in certificate courses. This growth reflects the growing need for paper qualifications discussed below.[17] Evening classes are held on the campus or, in collaboration with the WEA and the LEAs, in schools and educational centres. Class fees at present are between 30-40p per meeting -- relatively low compared with some LEA fees -- but students and old-age pensioners can usually enrol at half price. Despite the near nominal fees, the extra-mural classes still attract only a small minority of working class people and a high proportion of their members are graduates or professional people.

Some universities, like Cambridge, Manchester, Bristol and Oxford have residential centres offering short-stay courses of a liberal and vocational nature. The Manchester centre, Holly Royde College, hosts a wide range of short courses from September to April and during the three summer months takes in two three-month international summer schools, one for working people from the Nordic countries, the other for trade promotion officers from the developing countries. Manchester also organizes a three-week summer school at the seaside university town of Bangor in North Wales comprising small, week-long seminars; this study/holiday approach has proved popular with foreign students.

Post Experience Courses

Along with the improved provision of state education and easier access to universities since the war, the extra-mural

departments have moved into more specialist vocational or post-experience areas. Courses for social workers, for example, now comprise 8 per cent of all their work; Manchester even has a six-person team which runs a two year professional training course.[18] Industrial education has also grown immensely. Most departments now organize management courses and, in association with the Trade Union Congress educational department, a growing number of day-release courses for shop stewards. Some departments have used their classes to pioneer social research. The most famous example is Coats and Silburn's study of poverty in Nottingham but a Manchester class recently published a useful Housing Improvement Handbook designed to help occupants of poor housing to chart the laberynthine official channels leading to local government improvement grants.[19]

In addition, short post experience courses to provide special skills or up to date information, or which aim to widen the vision, are organized for a myriad of groups: local or central government officers, councillors, army officers, magistrates, lawyers, policemen, business executives, hospital administrators, doctors, clergy, architects, town planners and farmers to name but a few. The departments often take the lead in putting on conferences or symposia (as they are occasionally grandly described), for professionals in specific areas. These might be "one-offs" like the recent conference on North West regional government in the light of government proposals, or they might be annual events like Manchester's Symposium on Broadcasting Policy or its internationally known conference on Conurbation and Transport.

To organize these specialist courses the departments have to establish close working contacts with a wide range of organizations, many of which provide the necessary funds. The 1969 Further Education Regulations provide a 75 per cent grant "towards the cost of providing tuition in any course of liberal adult education in a programme approved ..." which means that the "closed" specialist courses are ineligible for grant; a situation which the Russel Report urged should be reversed.[20]

Teaching and Training

Tutors (occasionally called staff tutors or lecturers) are expected to be academically up to university standard. They are usually encouraged to pursue academic research and many of them undertake lecturing duties in internal departments. But in addition they must have good organizational skills, be prepared to travel to classes and to face audiences of varying ages, social composition and intellectual level. Audience size can vary -- anything from two or three to 500 -- but most extra-mural teaching takes place in small groups and teaching techniques have developed accordingly. An informal atmosphere is essential to encourage class participation and to disarm the fears of those with limited educational background. The tutor may be faced with a group of diverse qualities but, at best he must seek to fire their interest and extend their learning abilities to the limits. At the very least, he must do enough to bring them back next week! The overall standard is high enough to move the Vice-Chancellor of Durham University to comment that the extra-mural departments have on their staff "the most successful practitioners of the art of teaching that the university has".[21]

Whilst full-time tutors have ample opportunity to develop their skills, part-timers can face initial difficulties and there is always a risk that the class will fail. When employing part-timers the departments have to satisfy themselves that a new recruit has the necessary qualities and potential. Many part-timers, however (60 per cent in Manchester) are proven university teachers and many others teach in schools, colleges or polytechnics. Some departments now organize short training courses for part-timers to try to communicate some of the special problems of adult teaching and the various ways in which they can be reduced or overcome.

Professional adult education and research exists in some universities as a separate department, in others as a constituent part of its extra-mural department. In Manchester there is a separate department of adult education offering post graduate courses for adult educators in Britain and the developing countries

as well as training courses for internal university staff. From small beginnings adult education research has taken off, particularly in Manchester, Nottingham, Leicester, Oxford, Liverpool and Leeds and in its evidence to the Russel Committee the University Council for Adult Education (UCAE) urged more research in such areas as: student motivation, learning processes, and the educational needs of adults at different levels of ability and attainment.[22]

Russel Report (1973)

Many of the UCAEs recommendations were echoed by the Russel Report[23] but unfortunately it appeared precisely when Britain was plunging into economic recession. Government savagely cut public expenditure to reduce the money supply and encourage the private sector. Local government, accounting for one-third of public funds, was forced to economise and adult education as a low priority area came under the financial scalpel. The range of courses was reduced, drastically in some areas, and fees were generally pushed up. The extra-mural departments, deriving their funds from central government, escaped relatively lightly. Some of the organizational recommendations of Russel, like the establishment of a national and regional advisory councils have been followed but adult educators wait in vain for the main measures to be implemented. Russel had urged a doubling of the meagre 1 per cent of the national educational budget allocated to adult education, but even without a financial crisis adult education commands a low priority in Britain.[24] Most of the top decision-makers in Britain have had little contact with adult education; top civil servants have a predominantly Oxford and Cambridge background, the majority of ministers too, whether Conservative or Labour, are university educated.

Open University

Whilst the Russel Report continues to gather dust in the DES the Open University (OU) continues to gather momentum. The OU was founded, with much support from the extra-mural departments, by Harold Wilson's Labour Government in 1969, taking in its first batch of 24,000 undergraduates in January, 1970. The OU has a Royal Charter like any other university and it exists primarily to confer degrees although it also offers non-examination courses varying from six weeks to ten months. Candidates must be over 21 years of age and need have no qualifications but they have to be judged acceptable before being taken on. Courses are highly structured with special texts prepared to complement the programmes broadcast on radio and television (usually at non-peak viewing hours). The OU calculates that 65 per cent of student work is systematic reading, 10 per cent viewing and listening, 15 per cent contact with tutors and students in tutorials and at summer school and 10 per cent written project work or examinations.[25]

Degrees are built up on a credit system: one credit for each 12 month course studied. Six credits equal an ordinary degree whilst an honours degree requires eight, so typically a student will take six years to achieve a basic degree. At present there are 55,000 undergraduates and 13,000 post experience students, making the OU by far the largest university in the country.[26] The drop-out rate is relatively very low: only 50 per cent. The report of the OU Committee on Continuing Education looked forward confidently to the expansion of existing provision and the creation of a Delegacy of Continuing Education: in other words an OU extra-mural department.

Extra-mural Departments

All these Open University developments have been watched by the extra-mural departments with admiration tinged with envy and a little alarm. The egg which they themselves helped create

has hatched an infant which is growing so large so quickly that it threatens to become a cuckoo which will take over the whole nest. Behind the extra-mural movement from the earliest days has been the assumption that working people did not want or need examinations or university qualifications and that liberal education was somehow morally superior to both. Perhaps this itself was a disguised elite idea (though one with much in its favour) derived from the ideal of the nineteenth century gentleman scholar pursuing catholic intellectual interests in his leisure time. During the 1950s and 60s when the London University part-time degrees became increasingly popular, it emerged that for many people, extra-mural hors d'oeuvres were no substitute for main degree courses. But instead of using extra-mural expertise to answer this demand, the Government devised the highly original OU and also showed financial favour to the new polytechnics which could offer full and part-time degrees more cheaply than the universities.

The sight of new agencies carving out thriving new empires in areas of traditional extra-mural interest has left the extra-mural departments feeling by-passed and, understandably a little resentful. And yet, if these departments can abandon some of their traditional self-effacement a big opportunity exists to play a leading role in a new development. Spurred partially by the example of the OU and more especially by demographic trends which will leave universities with much spare capacity by the mid 1980s, the Government has been rethinking its policy towards universities. A Government discussion document Higher Education in the 1990s suggested that anticipated vacant places be filled by mature students, particularly women and working class people and that provision of part-time degrees be substantially expanded.[27] Mr. Gordon Oakes, one of the education ministers, has even spoken of universities comprising 50 per cent mature students by the end of the next decade. The UCAE response in June 1978 eagerly took up these ideas.[28]

Providing traditional areas of proven value continue to expand, the extra-mural departments can usefully apply their

experience, wisdom and special expertise in a variety of possible ways: running preparatory courses for mature students, helping to plan and teach courses involving mature students, particularly those undertaking part-time degrees, offering part-time degrees, providing a counselling service for mature students and so on.

For over one hundred years the extra-mural departments have been making their distinctive contribution to British life. They have helped considerably to reduce the barriers between the people and universities which academics with their special titles and esoteric subject languages tend to construct. It would be interesting to discover how many universities outside Britain organize events similar to Manchester University's Open Days when over 30,000 local people crowd on to the campus to visit laboratories and view displays and exhibitions. There are signs that at long last policy makers are beginning to realize that adult education is as vital a sector of education as any other. In the future expansion which now seems inevitable it is to be hoped that the extra-mural departments will be allowed to play a leading role in retraining, renewing, re-orientating and perhaps, still most important, retrieving people who dropped out of the educational system at an early age.

NOTES

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6 University Council for Adult Education (UCAE), University Adult Education in the Later Twentieth Century, (evidence to the Russel Committee) 1970, p. 34.

7 Marriott, op. cit., pp. 56, 58, 58, 55.

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9 Ellwood, Caroline, Adult Learning Today: A New Role for the Universities?, Sage, 1976, p. 51. These students were members of 195 classes.

10 Ibid., p. 54.

11 Adult Education: A Plan for Development (Russel Report), HMSO, 1973, para 86.

12 Ibid., para 124.

13 Ibid., para 117.

14 Ibid., paras 226-241.

15 UCAE Annual Report 1976-77, pp. 21-22.

16 UCAE evidence to Russel Committee, op. cit., p. 38.

17 Werner Burmeister in his introduction to Burrows, John, University Adult Education in London, University of London, 1976, p. viii. For a full discussion see Duke, C. and Marriott, S., Paper Awards in Liberal Adult Education, Michael Joseph, 1974.

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19 Coates, K., and Silburn, R., St. Annes -- Poverty, Deprivation and Morale in a Nottingham Community, University of Nottingham, 1966.

20 Russel Report, op. cit., paras 213-223.

21 Burmeister, op. cit., p. ix. For a description of tutor's necessary skills which well stands the passage of time, see Draper, op. cit., pp. 77-80.

22 UCAE evidence to Russel Report, op. cit., pp. 43-44.

23 Ibid., pp. 64-68 and Russel Report, op. cit., pp. ix-xxii.

24 Russel Report, op. cit., para 4.

25 See An Introduction to the Open University, OU, 1977.

26 Report of the Committee on Continuing Education, OU, December, 1976, pp. 6-12.

27 Department of Education and Science and the Scottish Education Department, Higher Education in the 1990's: A Discussion Document, 1978, p. 24.

28 Higher Education into the 1990s, Comments by the UCAE, June, 1978. Five northern universities have already produced a special booklet designed for the mature student, entitled A University Degree, A Second Chance at 21 Plus, Joint Matriculation Board, 1978.

SECONDARY SCHOOLS, UNIVERSITIES AND ADULT EDUCATION IN ITALY

Alessandro Casiccia

Secondary Schools and Access to Universities

In Italy, in addition to the uniform elementary school system extending from pre-school through primary school to the uniform middle school, there is the advanced secondary school system, consisting of university stream secondary schools, art schools, teacher training colleges, technical institutions and vocational schools. Some streams within this differentiated secondary school system lead directly to a vocational qualification; others lead exclusively to the university entrance qualification.

Up to a few years ago the advanced secondary school system, with its university stream secondary school, occupied a key position. A distinction was made between the liberal arts university secondary schools and the science university secondary schools. Both of these, but especially the former, were the product of a typically Italian educational tradition emphasizing eloquence and the humanities. Up until 1969 the university stream secondary school represented the only route to the university; on the other hand it was almost impossible to become a craftsman or to take some other trade or even to obtain a post in the civil service through these schools. Even today the main emphasis at the university stream secondary schools is on courses with a mainly philosophical and idealistic content

and this emphasis on the humanities is complemented by a training remote from the practical aspects of life.

The discussion of the liberalisation of university entrance requirements which began in 1968 has threatened the traditional privileges of the middle class, namely to attend a university stream secondary school and to receive its diploma and thus earn the right to enroll in one or the other faculty at a university.

Now, following 10 years during which university entrance requirements were relaxed, some restrictions are being reintroduced. In July of 1978, in the draft bill of a university reform measure which has long been under discussion in parliamentary committees, an article was introduced under which admission to a university will be restricted to those having a secondary school diploma which "agrees" with the particular field or discipline which the applicant wishes to sutdy. Anyone who does not have the required kind of diploma will have to pass an entrance examination.

Advanced Secondary Schools

In addition to the university stream secondary schools described above, which represent the traditional form of secondary school and which still exist today, there are a whole series of advanced secondary schools which offer specialised training and which grant diplomas, some of which provide direct access to employment or are also accepted as fulfilling the entrance requirements to a university. Examples of such schools are the language secondary schools, the arts schools, which are subdivided into art secondary schools and conservatories, the teacher training colleges, which provide the primary school teaching credential, the technical institutes, which provide direct entry into certain forms of employment, (e.g. as a bookkeeper or surveyor), and finally the vocational schools, whose students are almost exclusively from workers' families, (but which will not be discussed here).

Within the context of this tendency to continue to permit wide access to university, a trend has emerged in recent years

with regard to the transition from secondary school to university, or from secondary school to employment. A survey conducted in 1975 shows that a very high percentage of those leaving secondary school desire to enter employment and at the same time take a course of studies. In 1975 there was a total of 43.2 per cent of registered students who were also gainfully employed. It remains to be seen how this trend will develop in view of the plans alluded to above to restrict university entrance.

Adult Education in Italy

Italian adult education involves few established institutions and structures, but is rather more a question of some temporary State measures and of educational activities arising from social controversy and struggles by the trade unions. Italian adult education is characterised by constant processes of change and a lack of legislative security. It is only in the case of the people's schools that antiquated laws and decaying structures exist which maintain the function of adult education in a patriarchal and discriminating form. The areas of adult education to be described in the following are: (1) The outmoded people's school, the popular education courses and evening schools; (2) paid educational leave on the "150 hour model"; and (3) the use of university structures and institutions by part-time students.

People's Schools, Popular Education Courses and Evening Schools

Immediately after the Second World War attempts were made to come to terms with the problem of illiteracy which Facism had been unable to solve. Thus in 1947 people's school courses and in 1949 popular education courses were initiated. The purpose of the people's school was to overcome adult illiteracy, to offer courses which would provide primary school education and lead to complete middle school, i.e. to a desired vocational qualification. The failure of these initiatives is evident

from the following data. In 1951/52 500,000 adults participated in courses of this kind, but in 1961 there were still approximately 3,700,000 illiterates (of these, 2,600,000 in the south of Italy), to which must be added 4,000,000 semi-illiterates. Hence these initiatives have had little real impact and success and in the year 1974/75 the number of registered students dropped to 63,700.

In addition to the activities of the people's schools the Ministry of Education set up general popular education courses. To quote official statements, these courses were aimed at "adults from all social spheres and classes with various degrees of education" and their purpose was "to give people a clear and secure awareness as individuals of the necessity of achieving perfection in all aspects of life and not merely in their vocation...".

In the course of the fifties these courses slightly increased in popularity but in the sixties, despite ambitious plans, they became almost meaningless. When these courses were at their peak, the work included the following activities: elementary education courses, preparatory courses for apprentices, summer courses and courses on public holidays, introductory courses in music, courses in cultural motivation and continuing education and socio-cultural course offerings such as lecture courses.

Related to these activities, towards the end of the sixties the Ministry attempted to transform the regional lecture centres into social centres for continuing education and cultural services. However, this attempt was largely a failure as were the so-called evening schools, which were organized by the secondary schools and offered courses for adults, restricted to problems in education. All of these activities in the field of adult education set in motion by the initiatives taken by the Ministry had no lasting success.

Paid Educational Leave Within the "150 hour Model"

The 150 hours are not the result of a reform law or other governmental initiative, although the intention of the legislation is completely compatible with the constitution of the Italian Republic. It resulted from the workers' struggles which culminated in the 1973 collective agreement between workers and management in the metal and engineering industries. In this contract the right of every worker was established to 150 hours of paid educational leave within a period of 3 years. This block of hours can also be taken in the form of paid educational leave within one year. This achievement, which initially applied only to workers in the industries mentioned above (1,200,000 in the major private metal and engineering companies, 150,000 in smaller ones, 400,000 in companies with State participation) was soon adopted as a clause in agreements in other sectors. Many agreements have variants of this clause: for example in the textile industry, which provides for 120 hours per annum (40 of these with pay) or in publishing (100 hours of paid educational leave in two years), or in the case of the agricultural workers (60 hours per annum).

The total number of hours which each industrial undertaking is obliged to grant its employees as paid educational leave can be calculated if the number of employees is multiplied by 30. The present settlement, modified by the agreement of 1976 in the metal and engineering industry, provides for an extension of paid educational leave to a maximum of 250 hours for every worker.

At present there are courses preparing for primary and middle school examinations which require 450 hours (16 hours per week distributed over 5 days). They are given in the afternoons and in part overlap with working hours. For the workers in the metal and engineering industry and the textile workers (who have achieved the extension of the 150 hours to a maximum of 250 hours in some companies) the working day is divided equally into a period of work and a period of study.

The 150 hours courses in their present form are not yet

integrated into the Italian education system. The Ministry is attempting to have the 150 hours courses changed into a one year evening course, which means that the authorities recognize the present form of the 150 hours courses only as an experiment. At the moment the Ministry issues an annual set of regulations governing the maximum number of courses and some aspects of course content. In some regions local governments fund courses based on the 150 hour model if demand exceeds supply. In principle the 150 hours thus have an insecure and only semi-official status.

From the outset it was the strategy of the trade unions

(1) To emphasize within the framework of the 150 hours the preparation for the compulsory uniform school-leaving examination. It is in this area that the greatest number of paid education leave courses are given. Nevertheless, 150 hour educational leave courses are also given at the secondary school and university level.

(2) To open up the 150 hours not only to workers on paid educational leave, but to all adults in general (housewives, the unemployed, casual workers). In this area significant success has already been achieved which points the way to a new system of adult education in Italy.

(3) To hold the 150 hour courses in the public schools and universities and to prevent them from being pushed aside into marginal areas.

The trade unions do not support, indeed they criticise, the attempt by the Ministry to change the 150 hours into normal evening courses. The unions also oppose the extension of the 150 hours into vocational training, because this could create competition for the cultural courses within the 150 hours which are offered by the secondary and university level institutions. Hence the trade unions argue in favour of the creation of a separate parallel level for vocational training and upgrading, which is closely linked with the other areas of adult training. However, this strategy of separating general and cultural education from vocational education, the goal of which is to provide

institutional security for both levels of education, creates a far-reaching problem especially at the university level. It could help to consolidate an existing tendency, and to support the traditional Italian education system with its emphasis on ideas, eloquence and the humanities. However, not to carry out this separation would in practice lead to the replacement of much of the general and cultural education courses by vocational education.

This problem has been recognized and discussed, especially at the university level. The result of this discussion was that a number of 150 hour paid educational leave courses were planned and given, dealing with the relationship of academic learning to problems of the industrial world: for example, the role of industrial medicine in diagnosing health hazards at the place of work; problems of the labour market from a political and sociological point of view etc. The participation of workers in these courses was, however, not as great as anticipated. This was probably because such topics were more specialised than the workers had associated with university education in the traditional sense.

Part-time Studies for Employed Adults

In addition to the 150 hours there are in Italy examples of more spontaneous and informal use by workers of university structures and institutions. For example, in the course of mass political demonstrations attempts have taken place to achieve a strategic convergence of individual activities through what is known as collective university projects, which represent alternatives to the official university programmes. An example of this is the Department of Political Science at the University of Turin.

A further innovation at the university level was achieved through the improvement of university admission requirements as of 1968, as a result of which part-time study considerably increased and the elitist character of the Italian universities was brought to an end. The Department of Political Science

in Turin is probably not a typical example in terms of the number of part-time students. Of the students who were enrolled there in 1973/74 76.9 per cent had completed their schooling at a technical school or at a vocational school. In no less than 25 per cent of the cases, however, more than six years had elapsed between their leaving school and commencing part-time studies.

As the following table illustrates, 83.2 per cent of the students enrolled in the Department of Political Science at the University of Turin are part-time students.

Students	No.	%
Full-time employed	2,258	73.8
Part-time employed	228	9.4
Non-employed	496	16.2
Housewives	18	0.6
Total	3,060	100.0

Studies have shown that approximately one third of the students enrolled had started out as workers and have meanwhile achieved the status of salaried employees. Both the so-called vertical and horizontal mobility of these students is very great. Because of the frequently long interval between leaving school and commencing studies, the age of part-time students is constantly increasing. At present 54.5 per cent of the students are above the age of 25; 4.1 per cent are over 40 years of age.

In the case of the Department of Political Science at Turin University the developments described above have led to references to a phenomenon known as recycling into the education system. Recycling into the education system means that both workers and management regard part-time studies in functional terms. The workers see it as an improvement of their promotion potential

and hence a change to obtain better pay; the employers hope to achieve an increase in the mobility of intellectual potential. However, recycling into the education system does not automatically mean upgrading in the production system, i.e. increasing the qualifications demanded of a worker in the sense of giving him or her more responsible work.

It can be demonstrated that a university degree obtained through part-time studies leads to only a very limited increase in vertical mobility within the labour system. Bureaucratic structures within many companies hold those who have completed their degree in their old jobs. Hence those who have the greatest career ambitions tend to place greater trust in precisely these inflexible structures which facilitate promotion on the basis of personal connections rather than acquired abilities and knowledge.

To reach a better understanding of this complex problem it is also necessary to integrate into the discussion the personal variables, i.e. the attitudes and expectations of the part-time students. These variables are closely related to the motivation for the choice of a particular programme of part-time studies. The Department of Political Science at Turin conducted a survey on this subject. The most frequent reply to the question why a particular programme or course was chosen was "general interest in this field of study". Other frequent answers were "a need for cultural and political orientation" and "improvement of social relationships and widening my cultural horizons". The main component in these motives can be interpreted in two different ways: (a) as emphasizing the exchange value of the university degree; and (b) as emphasizing the utilitarian value of the knowledge acquired. Interpretation (a) implies that the part-time student is indifferent both towards his vocation and the specific content of his part-time studies, and that he regards his university diploma exclusively as a means of increasing his own exchange value on the labour market. Interpretation (b) implies that there is a need for the direct application of the contents of university studies. The student expects guidance, the gratification

of cultural needs, the acquisition of knowledge, all of which are not directly related to his work but assumed to be useful both in general industrial life (participation in trade union and political activities) and also outside of work, for example the ability to understand better the information in newspapers and books and television, to develop social contacts, to be active in cultural events and to participate directly in political life.

In both of the cases described, however, part-time study is the answer to tendencies towards downgrading in the area of intellectual activity, due to changes on the capital side and within the immediate work sector. The answer consists in an attempt to "reachieve the value" of one's individual self, which is not directly applicable in one's job.

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UNIVERSITY CIRCLE ACTIVITIES IN NORWAY

Wilfred Werner

Since 1965 an intersting expansion of the facilities for participation in extra-mural university studies has taken place. Such facilities are primarily designed for adults engaged in full employment. This development is the result of the Storting (Parlimanet) Bill No. 92, 1964/65 -- adopted by the Storting on June 12, 1965. In this comprehensive document mention is made, inter alia, of the part played by the universities and higher institutes in the field of adult education. It is emphasized that the universities and higher institutes would be able to play an important part with regard to educatory measures launched in conjunction with voluntary adult education organizations, and the universities have arrived at a flexible form of cooperation by means of the so-called university circles. The presentation of the programme outline and the leader must be approved by the University and the Ministry of Ecclesiastical Affairs and Education, which also supervise the activities. The Storting's resolution was subsequently succeeded by a declaration made by the collegia academica at the University of Oslo on April 11, 1969:

> The University undertakes the responsibility for the courses on university level which are held in the districts by approving both the teachers and the professional content of the courses through the Department for Information Activities, whilst the Folk University attends to the practical arrangements, the recruitment of the participants and the finances.

A university circle constitutes an alternative way for people outside the universities with regard to an introduction to vocational subjects on a university level. At the same time, a university circle may provide assistance for part-time students who are preparing for a university examination on their own. This last-mentioned factor has gained increasing topical interest as a result of the rising demand for post-secondary and continuing education. This development was foreseen in the Storting's proposal respecting adult education where, referring to university circles, the following is stated:

> As regards the qualifications required for participation in the courses, no fixed rule has been laid down respecting general education. This gives rise to the question as to whether the usual requirement for artium (matriculation) as a qualification for admission to our universities and higher institutes may not more generally be waived.

From a modest experimental operation of university circles with a view to preparation for examinations which was launched in five places in the autumn of 1965, the extent of the activities today far exceeds any of the anticipated demand. In 1976, university circles were being run in 94 communities, and it is noteworthy that some of these places had only a few thousand inhabitants.

The total number of participants exceeded 18,000, but of this number there were certainly no more than approximately 8,000 who were enrolled as students at one of the universities and who were preparing for university examinations. The largest number of participants, totaling 6,112, is to be found among those preparing for their degree in philosophy. The other most usual courses offered are mathematics, pedagogy, English, German, Norwegian, religious knowledge, law, political science, history of the arts, modern mathematics, physics and phonetics. Under the auspices of the Folk Universities in Oslo, Bergen and Trondheim, university circles of a different character have also been conducted: viz., in subjects which for the time being

are not being taught at the universities: journalism, conservation of the environment and business administration, to mention just a few.

It is worthy of attention that the number of extra-mural students in pedagogy is considerable; as a matter of fact, in excess of the total number of students of pedagogy attending the University of Oslo. It is assumed that the main reason for this is to be found in the part examination arrangement which has been introduced in the basic study of pedagogy and which affords these students the opportunity of taking their examination in five stages. This development was also alluded to in the Storting's Bill No. 92, 1964/65, where the following is stated:

> In connection with the extended activities of the university circles it may be appropriate to go further into the question concerning the right to sit for part examinations at the universities. Also as regards qualifications on university level, many persons will need some proof of the fact that they actually possess knowledge corresponding to the requirements at the universities in the discipline concerned.

The splitting of the programme of study into minor entities is gradually becoming the practice as regards other subjects where the conditions are favourable. In this connection mention may be made of the fact that the administrative authorities at the University of Oslo have called the attention of the faculties to the need for arranging the teaching in such a manner that part-time students may also participate.

In 1976 the Ministry of Ecclesiastical Affairs and Education has granted 5,100,000 Norw.Kr to the university circles. Even if only 10 per cent of the participants, i.e. 1,800 students, pass a university examination after having studied in this manner, the teaching expenses per candidate will be exceedingly reasonable from the State point of view. On the other hand, perhaps the gain in terms of knowledge is in accordance? The only available material that may elucidate the question are the statistics regarding the number of persons who fail to pass their examination

in philosophy at the universities and in the extra-mural teaching centres respectively: all evidence points out that there are no significant differences. On the other hand it is customary to maintain that the participants in the university circles receive far from the same comprehensive teaching facilities and a milieu which can be said to be equally as inspiring as is the case at the universities.

The university circles have been mentioned in connection with the need for relieving the pressure on the universities -- amongst others, by Mr. Bondevik, the then Minister, during a Parliamentary debate following a direct question put to him on October 27, 1970. The approximately 6,112 students who attend lectures in their respective local districts with a view to taking the examination in philosophy, bring a relief of the pressure with regard to bedsitters and vacancies in the reading-rooms. On the other hand, the university circles bring an appreciable pressure on the whole examination apparatus and administration of the universities and, to a certain extent, also on the teaching staff. Yet, the purpose of the university circles has never been to relieve the pressure on the universities, but to contribute to a kind of regional development which was not previously afforded much attention. The university circles are part of the same development which has given rise to the touring State theatre, the touring State gallery, the touring State concerts, and similar activities.

The great majority of those who study at the basic or intermediate level in their subjects in the districts would not as a rule have burdened the universities. This particularly applies to housewives who in their early youth either had to interrupt their studies or who were not given an opportunity to even begin. It is rather inconceivable that these people would leave their husbands and children in order to enroll at a university for an indefinite period. On the other hand, it is not impossible that the university circles may become a relieving factor if the conditions are made favourable so that full-time students deem it to be their advantage to use the

university circles as an alternative towards a basic study examination -- and then later on to apply for entry to the universities in order to pursue more advanced courses of study. The possibilities of such a development were discussed at a recent conference held in Hamar and can be summer up under the following items:

(1) The information and guidance services intended for the students in the districts must be more effective and co-ordinated. For the time being it will suffice if one consultant position is established at each university.

(2) University teaching posts must be instituted, involving compulsory extra-mural teaching either on a full-time or a part-time basis. It will thus be possible to supplement the teaching which is carried on by local lecturers.

(3) The Ministry must provide for additional grants to cover the costs of external examiners' fees. An arrangement must be established which ensures the adequate payment of permanently employed university lecturers who act as external examiners for the students from the districts.

(4) New, and more time-saving methods of evaluation should be set into operation.

(5) Experimental use of audio-visual aids should be introduced into the district teaching, combined with short summer and weekend courses, and other similar arrangements.

(6) As is known, in the National Budget for 1976, the total net expenses towards universities, higher institutes and other research work amount to 1.664,8 million Norw.Kr. Where there is no research work there is no university tuition. But an increase in research will not necessarily involve an increase in university tuition. A rationalization of the university circle system can ensure the maximum exploitation of the tuition section without any disruption of the priorities as regards the research section.

At the annual meeting of the Folk Universities held in Bergen in March of 1971 it was maintained that modern society will come to demand elements of university education in two-thirds

of all employment positions. Should this actually happen, we shall be faced with educational problems which can not solely be met through the building of new universities.

UNIVERSITY ADULT EDUCATION IN POLAND

Agnieszka Bron-Wojciechowska
and
Michal Bron Jr.

This paper represents a brief description of the functions of university adult education in Poland. First of all it provides the notion of an overview of university adult education. Second, it describes the structure of higher education in Poland as the basis for discussing the range of university adult education, i.e. studies in adult education, research in adult education, part-time study, and university extension. Third, it deals with the coordination bodies in Polish university adult education and other activities. Finally, it presents some perspectives of university adult education in Poland and needs for further development.

Overview of University Adult Education

Four most important activities can be distinguished in Polish university adult education. First, there are studies and degrees in adult education. Those studies are provided by the education departments of the universities and by the teachers' training colleges for full-time studies as a compulsory subject. Most of the students are being prepared to become teachers or administrators within the educational system. Some of the students take M.A. seminars in adult education and specialize

to be adult educators.

Research in adult education is undertaken in Poland by specialists at the universities and colleges as well as by those who work in the independent research institutes.

Part-time studies, primarily evening and extra-mural programmes, are provided by most departments of universities and colleges for employed adults. These programmes are on the same level as full-time studies and lead to M.A. and M.S. degrees. Part-time credit study is not an integrated part of university extension activities as is usually the case in English speaking countries.

The last area is connected with university extension which is something different when compared with university extension elsewhere. There are no separate extension departments which provide activities for the general public. It is better to classify this area as that of the popularization of knowledge. Most of the university staff members popularize knowledge through books and essays or give lectures on results of their research. But those activities are not organized by the university or, if so, at best, only very sporadically.

The Structure of Higher Education in Poland

There were 89 higher education establishments and 16 affiliated institutions in Poland in the academic year 1975/76. They include 10 universities, 18 technical universities, 7 agricultural academies, 6 economic academies, 2 marine higher schools, 12 teachers' training colleges, 10 medical academies, 6 higher schools of physical education, 16 higher schools of art and music and 2 theological academies. Besides, there were 20 faculties (12 of them belonging to technical universities) connected with colleges. In addition there are 127 study and consulting centres throughout the country. Both types of institutions offer courses for part-time students.

The Polish universities and colleges are run by the State and are financed from the State budget, both for teaching and research. University education is free of charge for the student as it is on all other levels of education in Poland. The only

private higher education establishment is the Catholic University of Lublin.

The management of higher education system is centralized. The highest authority rests with the Rector (President, Vice-Chancellor), who governs the school as a principal for all staff members. He is also a chairman of the university senate.

The university is subdivided into faculties with the dean as a superior authority. The faculty is in turn divided into departments which are governed by directors. Faculty, and sometimes departments, have an authority to give higher degrees because they possess their own Academic Councils. The departments are divided into sections.

To be admitted as a student at Polish university or college, it is necessary to receive matriculation from the secondary school (general or technical) and to pass the secondary school final examination. The next step is to apply for and successfully pass the university entrance examination in relevant subjects which is highly competitive. This is because of the restriction on the number of students in Polish higher education system (numerus clausus).

There are more candidates than places at most universities and their faculties or institutes; the annual number of available places is controlled by the Ministry of Higher Education through the medium-term. In the academic year 1975/76 there were 468,129 students at Polish universities and colleges. Most of them took part in full-time studies -- 283,159 (60.5 per cent) -- while the rest -- 184,970 (39.5 per cent) -- were part-time students. In 1975 6,312 students participated in 3-years full-time doctoral studies, while 11,645 were enrolled in postgraduate studies (full- and part-time) up to 2 years. The highest proportion of students are in technological fields (1/3 of the student population), the second highest enrollment is in social sciences and the third in natural sciences.

Higher education study lasts for 4-5.2 years, the period depending upon the field or discipline. Technology and medical studies are the longest. Generally there are two types of

studies, i.e. full-time and part-time. The latter is organized as evening courses, extra-mural studies, external and sandwich courses.

In terms of social background, most of the Polish full-time students come from the inteligentsia (54.1 per cent), followed by workers' families (30.5 per cent), while the smallest percentage comes from farmer families (11.9); others make 3.5 per cent. There are still too few students coming from workers' and farmers' families. To increase their number, candidates from these families are as a rule given some additional credits in their university entrance examination. The situation is reversed among part-time students. A high percentage of them are of working class origin (48.7 per cent), followed by farmers (26.5 per cent) and inteligentsia (23.5 per cent); others form 1.3 per cent.

The help which the students get from the state during their education include: scholarships, free accommodation in student residences and subsidized university canteens.

The university teaching staff included in 1972/73 academic year 6,395 professors and assistant professors, 21,223 senior lecturers and 3,618 junior lecturers, making a total teaching staff of 31,236.

The objectives of higher education institutions in Poland are not only to educate but also to conduct research and to provide training and advancement of young research workers.

The research work pursued by research staff of universities and colleges along with the teaching is conducted in the school institutes and other centres. Research is also undertaken at research centres subordinated to the Polish Academy of Sciences and the Ministries, as well as in central laboratories, and the like. Higher education institutions constitute a firm link in this system. More than 1,000 research topics are dealt with at the universities and colleges every year.

Studies in Adult Education and Masters Degrees in Adult Education

There are no separate programmes in adult education in Polish universities and colleges, i.e. there are no Adult Education

Institutes at the universities. But there are compulsory lectures, classes or seminars of educational studies.

Educational studies are offered by 22 higher education institutions in Poland, i.e. 10 universities and 12 teachers' training colleges. The educational studies last for 4 years (8 semesters). They are divided into two parts: the first part which lasts for two years introduces to the students the general knowledge of education. The following subjects are included in this part: general education, history of education, didactics (teaching-learning process), theory of education, comparative education, re-socialization, biology, economy, statistics, methodology of education etc. All students have to take two languages and they also have physical training.

In addition, in the second year of study all students participate in compulsory adult education courses (lectures and classes) for two semesters. The content of the adult education course is the following: the concept of adult education, its object and field of study, origin and development of adult education in Poland and abroad, the development of adult education in the Polish People's Republic, the adult learner as an object and subject of educational activities, the education of adults in contemporary Poland, teaching and learning of adults, adult educators and teachers. The course consists of 30 hours of classes and 15 hours of lectures. The education content and chosen method depend upon the teacher and his specialization in the field of adult education. The curriculum is general and varies according to the university. Discussion is the most popular method used during classes.

In the second part of the education studies, which also lasts for two years, all students have to choose a specialization from among the following: pre-school education, school education, in- and out-of-school children care, and cultural and educational activities. The last named specialization is taken by most of the students, and can be recognized as preparation for adult education as well. In this specialization students are being prepared for cultural and educational work outside the school

system, both with children and adults.

During the four-year programme students are trained also practically: they visit educational institutions and serve there also their practicum.

The studies discussed above end with an examination for Masters degrees. The oral examination and written thesis can be chosen from the following disciplines of education: general education, theory of education, didactics, history of education, education for revalidation, in- and out-of-school children care, comparative education, vocational education theory, and adult education. In the second year of their study, students participate in master programme seminars. Altogether they have 120 hours of seminars in the masters degree programme. Their projects are mostly empirical.

All universities and colleges which offer educational studies have departments or sections of adult education; the staff of these departments provide the courses in adult education.

In some universities there used to be inter-faculty courses in educational and cultural work. These were organized by adult education departments of the faculties of education and were available as electives for all students from the university. Students could participate in classes and lectures when they completed the second year of their own studies. The motivation for participation was their personal interest in educational and cultural work, desire to know the methods of research work, and interest in education through art. There were 4 hours of classes and lectures every week and discussion was most commonly used as a method of teaching.

The study in educational and cultural work which lasted for two years included the following subjects: psychology of adults, theory of adult education, sociology of culture, methodology of research work, education through art. The course ended with an examination which consisted of two colloquia and two examinations. There was also a month of practice in an educational or cultural institution. Students received special certificates, which were honoured as professional or even post-graduate study. Most of

the students came from such faculties as history, geography, education, and philosophy.

The first inter-faculty studies in educational and cultural work started in 1965 at Poznan University which is the only university where they still exist. In 1966 these studies were established in other universities as well, but after 15 yeras of work they were abolished. The educational authorities justified their decision as follows: (a) the number of students graduating from each university (20-30 persons annually) was too small in comparison to the high cost, and (b) the problems of educational and cultural work became a part of the regular curriculum in educational studies. The studies continued at Poznan University because the student participation had been greater than anywhere else. The studies there contain two very important additional subjects: problems of tourism and hiking (with observation and study of the region), so they can prepare students for tourist guidance as well.

There are no post-graduate studies in adult education yet, but in 1979 it is planned to establish them at the University of Warsaw.

Research in Adult Education

As has been mentioned above, there are departments of adult education in faculties of education at all Polish universities and in teachers' training colleges. Those departments not only organize and provide classes, lectures and seminars in adult education, but they also conduct research in adult education. The following is a list of several main reserach topics carried out in various universities and research centres.

At the Warsaw University, the Department of Adult Education carries on research in areas such as: comparative studies in adult education (Arabic countries, Scandinavian countries, the Soviet Union), industrial relations (work adaptation, evaluation of vocational and upgrading courses for working people, education in creativity at work), popularization of knowledge (folk high school participants and their educational needs, contents and

methods of popularization of knowledge in the people's universities, methodical education of adult educators).

Researchers in the Cultural Popularization Section at the Jagiellonian University of Cracow conduct investigations in education through art, mass communication, adults' hobbies, adults' leisure.

The main areas of research in the Department of Adult Education at the Poznan University are: reading habits of adults, adult reading interests, motives of reading, and comparative studies in reading habits in Poland and abroad.

The staff of the Adult Education Department at the Lublin University are interested in schools for adults, educational policy, popularization of knowledge at people's universities, education for adults living in villages, and further training for teachers.

The Department of Adult Education at the Torun University conducts studies in history of adult education in Poland and in distance education.

At the University of Lodz a group of adult educators work mostly on the problems of adults' leisure, educational counselling, and parent education.

There are many other institutions outside the universities which conduct research in adult education. For example, there is the Institute for Science Policy, Technological Progress and Higher Education in Warsaw. The Education Department of the Institute conducts research in part-time studies for adults, self-directed learning and personal development of adults, teaching problems for adults, and comparative study of university adult education.

Research in agricultural education for adults is undertaken by the Academy of Agriculture in Warsaw and Academy of Agriculture and Technology in Olsztyn.

Studies in education for workers, vocational training and upgrading are undertaken by the Institute of Vocational Training in Warsaw, Warsaw Technical University and the Institute of Organization of Engineering Industry.

The problems of teaching adults, modern methods and media are investigated by the Teachers' Training College in Cracow, Wroclaw Technical University, The Institute for Building Organization and Mechanization in Warsaw, and the Teachers' Training College in Zielona Gora.

The study of problems of the educators of adults is undertaken by the Research Institute of Teachers' Training in Warsaw. The Institute of Educational Programmes prepares programmes and investigates their value and effectiveness at the school for adults.

Finally, general adult education is studied at the Silesia Research Institute in Katowice.

Part-time Study

There has been a long tradition of part-time study in Poland. The first correspondence courses for teachers were organized in 1890. In 1916 two-year correspondence programmes for non-qualified teachers were organized. Then the correspondence university and correspondence courses in agriculture as well as in cooperatives were established.

Today there are four kinds of part-time study at universities and colleges, i.e. evening courses, extra-mural courses, sandwich courses and external studies.

The programme of evening study is the same as of full-time study, but the students have to work more on their own. Classes and lectures are held in the evenings 3-5 times a week. They are specially organized for courses which need laboratories. To become more effective, the evening programme should include 1-2 whole days in a week of study (day-release courses).

Extra-mural study is organized mostly as guided independent study with the help of programmes, syllabuses, counselling centres, methodological counselling agencies, text-books, radio and TV programmes. There are sessions once in two weeks for two days, organized by the universities for laboratory work, tutoring and examinations. The extra-mural form is the best for non-laboratory courses, such as economics and humanities.

External studies are the most self-directed form of study. The post-secondary institution does not organize any help, it gives only a list of examinations and the range of obligatory content of particular subjects. The students may consult the time-table of examinations.

Sandwich courses, so popular in Great Britain and the USA, are still at an experimental stage in Poland. This form of study has been introduced at Warsaw Technical University in close cooperation with the Polish Fiat Factory. Comparatively high effectiveness of this course makes one expect that sandwich courses will soon become common in Poland.

There are two levels of part-time study in Poland: professional (diploma) programmes which last for 3½ to 5 years, depending on the course, and master (degree) programmes which last for 5 to 6 years. After completing a professional programme it is possible to participate in the masters programme lasting from 1½ to 2½ years.

In 1976/77 part-time study was organized at 13 faculties for 53 professions. University courses were held at 9 universities and 11 counselling centres; economic studies were organized at 5 academies of economics, 3 universities and 15 counselling centres; agricultural studies were provided by 7 academies of agriculture, 1 affiliated intitute and 12 counselling centres.

In 1973/74 39.1 per cent of all students participated in part-time study, i.e. 28.1 per cent in extra-mural study, 9.4 per cent in evening courses and 1.6 per cent in external studies. The experimental sandwich courses had only a very small number of students.

There is a trend towards a lower age among part-time students. Today adults between 21 and 25 years of age prevail. As it was stressed before, more part-time students are of working class origin (54.4 per cent) and farmer class origin (24.6 per cent) than the full-time students.

Part-time students get considerable support from the state: those who are attempting to enter higher education institutions get 6 working days leave for the entrance examination. Part-time

students receive paid educational leave for classes, examinations and writing of masters thesis or diploma work: students in extra-mural study get 28 working days leave per year; in evening courses they initially get 21 days leave but after the second year of study and if they obtain good marks they receive an extra day every year; extra-mural and evening students get a special leave of 21 working days for writing projects and diplomas or masters thesis; evening course students can get also a maximum of 5 hours per week off for study; if working students have to travel to their classes, the travel costs are reimbursed by their employers.

Popularization of Knowledge

There has been a tradition at Polish universities to give public lectures for the wide public. First such lectures and cycles of lectures were given by J. Osinski, professor of Collegium Nobillium in Warsaw in the years 1779 to 1782. The Vilnius University provided public lectures twice a year during 1813 to 1822. At the end of the 19th century public lectures were given by the University of Lwow and the Jagiellonian University of Cracow.

Today only few activities of the university are open to the general public. Public lectures or cycles of lectures are organized only sporadically. The Faculty of History and the Faculty of Polish Literature of the Warsaw University occasionally organize public lectures on subjects important for the society: history of Warsaw, history of the Warsaw Castle, great Polish poets and novelists, etc.

Every year all Polish universities and colleges are open for a week to the young people who intend to study at the post-secondary level. They can visit lectures and decide what they want to study. There are also special courses provided by every school, where university staff members give lectures preparing for the university entrance examination. But they are mostly organized by the youth and students' organization and not by university authorities.

Thus, popularization of knowledge is not provided by the

university itself, but university teaching staff are actively engaged in this work. There are many public lectures organized by social and public associations and given by university staff and research workers from independent institutes. The biggest of these associations is the TWP, the Society for the Popularization of Knowledge which organizes lectures at people's universities. There are about 4,000 people's universities in Poland, providing lectures for 2 million adults. Lectures at people's universities are given by university staff and specialists in various professions.

There is also the Popular University of the Polish Academy of Sciences, which provides only public lectures and cycles of lectures. Its lecturers are the members of the Polish Academy of Sciences.

Many professors from universities are organized in scientific societies, such as the Polish Historical Society, the Polish Archaeological Society, and the Polish Amateur Astronomers' Association. There are also many regional scientific societies. All of these have to deal with scientific problems, publish books, and also popularize science and knowledge for the public; they organize public lectures, publish popularizing books and journals, and organize competitions for the youth.

There are many series of popular scientific books which are written by well-known professors and research workers. There are also many popular journals for the wider public with articles published by university professors.

An exact number of university staff members participating in popularization of knowledge cannot be established as there is no research available on this subject. However, it is known that there are not enough university staff who can provide lectures for the public or write popularizing books.

Other Activities

Generally, teaching staff in adult education in Poland are mostly part-timers. They very often are good specialists in their subjects, but they do not have knowledge and experience on how to teach adults. Thus, adult education theoreticians

and researchers help the educators by organizing courses and seminars in adult education, and by publishing books and articles. Several groups of adult education theoreticians and researchers from universities and colleges and adult educators are working together for theory building in adult education, for upgrading, and for broadening of knowledge of adult education processes.

An important group in this respect is the Andragogical Section of the Society for the Popularization of Knowledge, which organizes seminars in adult education with researchers and practicioners, publishes special booklets, and undertakes research in people's universities.

There is also the Andragogical Summer School organized by the Adult Education Section of the Teachers' Union. (It should be pointed out that in Poland there is only one Teachers' Union comprised of all teachers, educators and professors of education.) The subject of discussions at the Summer School changes every year. Two years ago the main topic was the theory and practice of self-directed learning. The participants in the seminars are adult education theoreticians and researchers from all over the country, practicians and foreign guests.

The latest group is the Adult Education Section of the Committee of Educational Sciences of the Polish Academy of Sciences. The section has a group of young theoreticians and researchers as the auxiliary. The task of the section is to coordinate and to stimulate research in adult education in all universities and independent institutes, and to develop theory of adult education; its aim is also to educate adult educators, and to introduce research findings to the practice.

There is a monthly journal Oswiata Doroslych (Adult Education) which publishes theoretical articles, research findings, problems of practice, reports on adult education abroad, reviews and bibliography. It is very useful for theoreticians and practitioners alike. The editor-in-chief of the journal is Dr. Kazimierz Wojciechowski, Professor at the Warsaw University.

Perspectives of University Adult Education in Poland - Needs for Further Development

It seems that the development of the four areas of university adult education as discussed above will not be proportionate.

The main activities in the development of adult education research can be noticed. That is because there are first attempts to integrate the milieu of all Polish adult education theoreticians and researchers. It is the hope that the integration will allow to define the most significant tasks of study and will start the exploration of blanks in the discipline of adult education.

The second area which will develop seriously is part-time study for adults. It will be a result of an arrangement in the changing structure and programmes of post-secondary schooling in Poland.

As to the training of adult educators we have to wait until the results of current studies are available. It is the hope that those results will let us prepare the new modern programmes of education for adult education.

A very slow development will be seen in the area of opening the higher education establishments to the public. This means not only the popularization of knowledge but also non-credit courses organized by universities and colleges. The slow rate of change in this area is due to the rigid university structures and the conservative attitudes of the teachers and administration staff. It can be expected that the phenomenon of the growing educational needs of the society will contribute to a faster development in this area possibly much faster than was anticipated.

UNIVERSITY AND NON-UNIVERSITY ADULT EDUCATION IN SWEDEN

Bert Frederiksson
and
Peter Hammarberg

Introduction

If the term adult education (adult training) is understood to mean the education (training) of adults -- without regard to the level of the education -- approximately one third of all adults take part in adult education courses in Sweden. This high proportion is partly attributable to the wide variety of courses offered. Swedish terminology distinguishes between adult education at the universities (conventional and technical) -- so-called university education -- and non-university adult education, not offered by the university. Non-university adult education can be offered both at university level and at lower levels. The distinction between the terms university adult education and non-university adult education is based largely on structural criteria, hence the following description will use this distinction as a starting point. This paper will outline university education in Sweden first.

Why a New University?

On June 1, 1977 the reform of university education in Sweden

began. The goals of this university reform are:
- to increase access to training,
- to broaden the range of courses and make them more specialized,
- to make more democratic the organization of training.

During the fifties and sixties more and more high school graduates were anxious to receive a higher education at a university or a university technical institute. Initially these academically trained people enjoyed excellent job opportunities, but as early as the mid-sixties it became evident that there were not enough jobs available for certain groups of academically trained persons. After that, the purpose and quality of university education was widely discussed, while earlier these questions had been pushed aside due to the problems of the growing numbers of students. The discussion of these problems became even more intense at the beginning of the seventies, when the full effect was felt of the shortage of jobs for university graduates.

In the sixties, within the framework of some experimental models, new groups of people who had not taken the university entrance examinations were permitted to study selected subjects. These students came to the university with different experience and thus had other expectations and requirements with regard to an academic training.

The rapid social changes both in Sweden and in other countries influenced the interpretation and evaluation of academic training: one of many demands made was for the internationalisation of training, another was for greater democracy.

The school reforms in the fifties and sixties were aimed at offering a larger number of students a university-stream secondary school education. The changes which were introduced were designed to remove barriers and enable all primary-school students to enjoy an academic-secondary school education which would lead further. The same demands were then made of academic education. There was to be easier access to universities in order to remove barriers between secondary school and university. At the same time it became evident that academic education provided a number of qualifications which were becoming increasingly

important for the training (and continuing education) of those already employed. A large number of these employed persons had not taken the final examination at a university-stream secondary school and hence were not entitled to enter a university under the regulations in force at that time. However, the experimental models alluded to above -- the offering of university courses in certain subjects to employed persons -- had had some positive results and thus it seemed logical to improve and increase the opportunities for study by employed persons, possibly through a combination of study and employment. The argument in favour of so-called recurrent education became increasingly persuasive.

University Reform: Evaluation and Future Prospects

The new Swedish university does not break with tradition. It builds on the existing prerequisites which apply to the universities and technical institutes and to numerous other educational institutions.

There has always been debate as to the function of the university and how this was to be fulfilled. The problem of linking academic research and teaching with the needs of society has been discussed as long as the university itself has existed. Some elements within the new university have different roots and traditions to those of the traditional universities and thus for them other developmental criteria apply. For example the normal school seminars were established in the first half of the nineteenth century in the context of the introduction of the compulsory elementary school. The schools of nursing were created in the second half of the nineteenth century and schools of social work can be traced back to the Institute for Social Policy Social-Political Institute in Stockholm which was founded in 1920.

Almost all of the post-secondary institutions shared the dramatic rise in student enrollment in the fifties and sixties. However, in some university faculties, e.g. the arts faculties, student enrollment has considerably decreased in the seventies.

Some features of the university reform can be attributed to the reforms which were implemented within the regular school system in the decade which preceded this period. Amongst these was the intention to make university education accessible to the greatest number of people without regard to sex, social and geographical factors. A further common problem is preparation for vocational and professional life.

In the fifties and sixties the Swedish Parliament passed the basic legislation governing the quantitative expansion of post-secondary education and research. The universities and university technical institutes, which 25 years earlier had an enrollment of approximately 3,000 students each, had grown to become the large-scale universities of today. New universities and technical universities were created, among other places in Umea, Linkoeping and Lulea. New schools of social work and teacher training institutions were established and in 1972 the university library school was set up. The training of pre-school teachers increased from 200 student places in 1960 to approximately 5,000 in 1976.

An important feature of the new university reform is decentralization, i.e. decisions as to the content of the training and the methods used, decisions as to the extension of the universities are to be made on a decentralized basis. Hence the implementation of the reform and the further development of the universities in future will be much more dependent on local and regional initiatives.

Basic University Education

As of July 1, 1977 the new university comprises those training programmes which previously had been offered by the universities and the technical university institutes (the agricultural, forestry and technological institutes amongst others). The university now offers a series of programmes which previously could be taken on leaving the elementary school but which now are developing more and more to be an alternative to traditional university training.

Among such programmes are some former special courses offered at the university-stream secondary school, for example the training of rehabilitation therapists and of leisure-activity counsellors, laboratory assistants and medical technical assistants. The training of nurses, some apprentices, as well as the training of pre-school teachers, regular school teachers and vocational training teachers is now incorporated within the new universities.

Due to the new university reform post-secondary education has received a uniform structure. Step by step it is intended to achieve an increase in the adequate distribution of funds within the entire university sector, in order to thus develop long-term courses which are more closely adapted to the students' wishes and the needs of society and industrial life.

Course Offerings and Programmes

The new basic university education is divided into so-called training programmes and so-called individual courses. By programmes is meant a cohesive set of courses aimed at a certain sector of the labour market. One example might be the programme in the behavioural sciences, which is aimed at activities in the field of personnel administration, personnel development and educational planning as well as activities within the field of industrial science. The various programmes are divided into the following groups:

The General Programme: These are programmes which are to cater to a permanent social need, for example, medical training, teacher training or the training of journalists.

Local Individual Programmes: These are programmes which are directed towards the specific wishes, requirements or resources of a particular place or region.

Individual Programmes: These are programmes tailored to the needs of individual students (or a group of students) at their request.

Upgrading Programmes: Courses in upgrading programmes build on the general programmes and are intended for further training and specialization.

The offerings in the individual programmes consist of courses

which are so devised that they can be taken in stages and hence make it possible for the student to combine study with gainful employment. The Government decides in each case which general programmes may be offered and how many students may be enrolled.

Uniform and clear plans are issued for the general programmes, which among other things stipulate any specific prerequisites. The local authorities decide questions of specific organization and the form of the individual programmes at the particular university or technical institute. The latter can make independent decisions relating to local programmes which may be offered, i.e. course offerings which can only be offered at one university or technical institute.

Individual Training Courses

Those who do not wish to take an entire programme can take one or more individual courses. This can be an independent course or part of a programme. Most individual courses are taken in places where there is a university or an institution affiliated with a university, and they are usually related to subjects in the field of general education which, prior to the university reform, were given within the faculty of arts.

The Units System of Credits

To indicate the duration of a course or programme units system has been introduced, in which one week of full-time study is credited with one unit. Hence a full-day course lasting one semester (ca. 20 weeks) receives 20 units of credit. If the same course is given on a half-day basis, it will -- in order to receive the same number of units -- be given over two semesters.

Within the framework of the general programmes 40 to 220 units can be obtained; in the local and individual programmes a minimum of 60 and a maximum of 160 units can be obtained. An individual course is normally given 60 units of credit.

The Linking of University Training with Employment and Research

The legislation of 1975 stipulates that the primary function

of university education is to provide the student with knowledge and skills which are relevant to his subsequent employment. At the same time it is stressed that the function of the university must not be confined to purely vocational training. The linking of studies with subsequent employment is likewise not intended to adapt university training to the requirements of vocational life or the requirements of the employer. The relationship between university training and employment must be viewed in a more complex context. The students should learn to evaluate critically processes in their working life and in society and to contribute constructively to the development and renewal of these processes.

In addition a broad range of qualifications is demanded of the training, so as to facilitate versatile utilisation of personnel in the various sectors of industrial life.

The legislation stresses that a particularly characteristic aspect of the system should be the relating of university training to scientific research. However, this is not meant to imply that chairs are to be established for the entire university education system in its new and comprehensive form, nor is it intended to spread research funds more widely than hitherto. The legislation stresses two ways in which training and research are to be linked. Firstly, the entire basic university training is to be linked with training in research; secondly, research and training in research are to be so developed that they relate directly to the content and problems of the individual basic courses.

Admission Requirements

As of 1977 new regulations for admission to programmes within basic university training apply. There are so-called general admission requirements for entrance to university, requirements which are common to the vast majority of university programmes and in part there are special requirements, which stipulate specific prerequisites for certain programmes or courses. In applying for admission to certain programmes both the general

and special requirements must be fulfilled.

General Requirements: The general requirements are met if the applicant either

- has had two years of education at a university-stream secondary school or the equivalent education and
- has a level of proficiency in the Swedish language equivalent to two one-year courses within the two-year programme at the university-stream secondary school, and
- has a level of proficiency in the English language equivalent to two one-year courses within the two-year programme at the university-stream secondary school;

or

- has reached the age of 25 and has had at least four years of work experience (for this purpose 10 years taking care of one's own children or other dependents, as well as military service, are also counted), and
- has a level of proficiency in the English language equivalent to two one-year courses within the two-year programme at the university-stream secondary school;

or

- has had at least 11 years of education at a school in another country which, under normal circumstances, lasts until the age of seventeen, or is, in some other respect, entitled to admission to university in the country where he received his secondary school education, and
- has a level of proficiency in the English language equivalent to two one-year courses within the two-year programme at the university-stream secondary school, and
- has a certain level of proficiency in the Swedish language.

Special Admission Requirements: Certain programmes or individual courses have special prerequisites which are listed in a special catalogue relating to specific subjects or one-year courses at the university-stream secondary school, although it is possible to fulfill these requirements without actually attending the

university-stream secondary school. Where prior knowledge in one subject only is required, a grade of at least 3.0 in that subject is necessary. If the prerequisites are in several subjects, an average of at least 3.0 in all subjects is necessary. These special requirements may be waived in the case of persons who meet the general requirements, have normally reached the age of twenty-five and have had four years of employment experience. The candidate is allowed to decide for himself whether he is suitably prepared, for example, by virtue of his employment experience. However, before making such a decision, it is advisable for the student to consult a counsellor.

The Selection Process

Candidates to be selected are divided into categories according to their educational qualifications and/or their employment experience. The classifications differ depending whether the candidate is applying for a programme or for an individual course. In both cases, however, the stipulation is that the number of places available must be divided in direct proportion to the number of applicants within each group.

(a) Selection System for the Individual Programmes

Grouping of Applicants	Ranking of Applicants
I Applicants who have completed the three or four-year programme at a university-stream secondary school, or an equivalent Swedish education.	Points awarded on the basis of school certificates with additional points possible for employment experience. (Within these quota groups 20 per cent of the places are reserved for students whose points derive exclusively from school certificates.)
II Applicants who have completed a two-year programme or special course at the university-stream secondary school, or an equivalent Swedish education.	

III Applicants who have taken courses at the residential folk high schools.	Points awarded for previous studies and possibly points for employment experience.
IV Applicants who fulfill the requirements in other ways.	Points awarded for employment experience and for the voluntary university test. (50 per cent of the applicants who fall solely within this category are entitled to the places allocated to this group.)

(b) The University Test

The university test examines knowledge and skills which are considered to be general university entrance requirements, e.g. general knowledge, vocabulary or the ability to read and comprehend graphic information. The test consists of approximately 150 questions and takes an entire day. Candidates may repeat the test as many times as they wish. Only the best result then counts. The result of the test is valid for a period of two years.

(c) Selection System for the Individual Courses

As was already indicated, the selection process for individual courses is conducted differently. The Selection Board is entitled to reserve a block of places to be allocated according to a system of priorities. Each case is then evaluated on the basis of the need for training, previous training and employment experience.

After these places have been allocated on the basis of the system of priorities, the other applicants are divided into three groups:

- applicants with at least two years of university training;

- applicants without university training as described under Point I but who have at least 15 months employment experience; and
- other applicants.

The ranking of applicants is made according to the priority set by the applicant himself with regard to the course for which he applies compared to the other courses which he will take should he not get his first priority. As a last resort selection is made by the drawing of lots.

Summary

To sum up, the following are the characteristic features of the Swedish university reform:

(a) New admission requirements are intended to enable persons already employed to complete university training. A new aspect here is that employment experience has become an important criterion in the selection procedure and the fact that a candidate has reached the age of twenty-five and has had four years of employment experience has been included in the list of requirements.

(b) A reorganization of the courses is intended to create increased opportunities for employed persons to obtain university training and to facilitate their alternating between employment and study (in the sense of recurrent education). Obviously the principle of recurrent education requires a high degree of organizational flexibility. At present in Stockholm experimental models have been implemented, for example, to retrain nurses to become doctors.

(c) New forms of distribution and geographical dispersion are intended to make it possible for persons who are already employed to receive university training outside the traditional existing university towns. One of these new forms of distribution is so-called distance education which permits the student to take certain sections of a course by independent study and then to study for short periods at the university

within the framework of concentrated course offerings (lectures, examinations etc.). Most of the courses offered in this form at present are individual courses in the faculty of arts. This system makes it possible to combine employment with study. A further form of distribution which has been considerably extended in recent years is the decentralization of university courses, i.e. the university organizes individual courses in places where university education is unavailable. The courses can be moved from place to place and carried over from year to year. Finally, reference must be made to the considerable increase in the number of evening courses in university towns. Normally they count as half-day courses, i.e. their duration is twice that of the regular day courses.

Non-University Adult Education

As was already stated in the Introduction, non-university adult education, i.e. adult education which is not organized by the universities themselves, can be found in a variety of different forms and programmes. The overwhelming majority of participants in non-university adult education combine their studies with regular employment or employment in their own home or are involved in other social activities.

Aims of Adult Education

The aim of adult education is to achieve a more uniform level of education for all citizens. Adult education is intended to narrow the gap between young people with relatively good education and adults with a relatively brief basic education, as well as between adults with a relatively brief education and those who have had a more extensive one. Thus, adult education is primarily oriented towards the following groups:

(a) adults who have had only a brief or inadequate education in their youth,

(b) culturally and educationally deprived groups,
(c) employed persons, and
(d) persons living in areas with low population density.

Funding

In addition to the general public funding of adult education, which has been considerably increased, a law was introduced in 1975 under which every employee is entitled to paid educational leave (financial problems arising from this arrangement are to be resolved through agreement between labour and management). Specific measures to promote adult education were already introduced. For example, the State provides funds for recruitment and counselling at places of work and in residential areas where new immigrants tend to live. These measures are funded by special items in the adult education budget.

According to a survey in the academic year 1973/74 approximately 29 per cent of the total Swedish population between the ages of 16 and 74 took part in some form of adult education courses. The percentage of female students was slightly higher than the percentage of male students, (29.5 per cent and 28 per cent respectively). The survey also shows that the difference in the level of education alluded to above is constantly widening. Whereas the better-qualified adults continue to upgrade their educational qualifications, a large number of the lower-paid workers, handicapped persons in socially disadvantaged positions, persons who are employed for irregular periods and immigrants have remained at the education level which they reached in their youth. The survey also shows that among the under-educated there is a latent interest in further qualifications but that numerous obstacles make it difficult or even impossible for them to pursue this interest.

The Different Forms of Adult Education

In Sweden a large number of central authorities are responsible for the planning and coordination of public education in each

of the completely separate social sectors. There is, for example, the University Authority (UHA), which is responsible for the university sector, and the National Board of Education (SÖ), which is responsible for the school system. The latter is also responsible for adult education offered outside of the universities. Both authorities are in turn responsible to the Ministry of Education. Sweden has 149 local government authorities and 24 provincial legislatures which in matters of taxation are relatively autonomous. Some local and provincial governments are financially responsible for the local (municipal) universities which, like the state universities, are part of the regular university system. Similarly, the local government authorities and the provincial legislatures are responsible for adult education outside of the universities, and promote it in various ways. The following is a brief outline of the best-known forms of adult education not offered by the universities:

(a) In Sweden there are about 100 folk high schools which receive state subsidies. Approximately half of these folk high schools are funded by various organizations (e.g. by political, professional or religious organizations). The number of students has risen steadily and was about 8,700 in the academic year 1975/76.

(b) In the Fall Semester of 1975 approximately 120,000 persons were enrolled in adult education courses funded by local governments. Approximately 29 per cent of them were taking courses in the compulsory (9 year) primary school programmes, approximately 43 per cent were taking university-stream secondary school courses and 28 per cent were taking practical vocational training courses. Local-government supported adult education takes the form of all-day courses and evening courses and is based on the curriculum for the regular school system. In addition there are in Sweden two state schools for adults (at the university-stream secondary school level) which are primarily intended for those students who, for a variety of reasons, are unable to pursue their studies in the place where they normally reside.

(c) Adult education aimed at the labour market at present has an annual capacity of 95,000 persons. It is primarily intended for adults who, for a variety of reasons, are unable to find employment or who have lost their job. This programme of adult education aimed at the labour market offers a very large number of varied courses.

(d) The central professional organizations receive state subsidies for various types of upgrading of their own members. Particular support is provided for those courses which relate to legislation introduced in recent years pertaining to the regulation of the labour market. Many professional associations have their own educational facilities.

(e) A year ago a special public corporation was created in Sweden, the Swedish Educational Broadcasting Corporation, which is responsible for adult education courses on radio and television. This education medium is so new that it is impossible to estimate reliably the number of users.

(f) Finally, there are approximately ten adult education associations which, as voluntary associations, are often affiliated with specific organizations such as political or professional associations. They undertake very extensive educational activities. In 1975/76 these associations organized approximately 270,000 study circles, with approximately 2.5 million students. These organizations also organize the recruitment and counselling at the place of work or in certain residential areas. They receive financial support from the local, provincial and federal governments. The courses offered by the associations can, in principle, include any course from the primary school to the university level.

In 1947 the first sweeping reform of independent and voluntary adult education was undertaken in Sweden. The general financial support for the work of the study circles and the general activities of the adult education associations was regulated by a special law. A certain rate of funding was set for the study circles and funding was made dependent on certain organizational

conditions; the legislation imposed no conditions on the extent of the activities of the study circles, the content of courses, and their goals. The absence of such conditions was deliberately intended to make possible independent and voluntary adult education, which would reflect the ideology and interests of the various popular movements affiliated with the adult education associations. The university study circles were an exception in that they were supported but only up to a specific limit, which was dependent on the total amount expended for state support of adult education; however, this drawback was removed in 1963.

Swedish adult education has been subject to a number of influences and stimuli from England. The university study circles are a good example, since they are modelled on the English tutorial classes. The university study circles seek to make it possible to offer programmes at the same level as the university programmes, in order to acquaint people with the scientific pattern of thought characteristic of contemporary society.

The activities of the university study circles are the only kind of independent adult education where certain conditions were imposed with regard to the qualifications of the seminar leaders. There are approximately 3,000 university study circles with annual participation of some 35,000 adults. The overwhelming majority are offered by the social sciences and arts departments, amounting to approximately 1,300 circles; next come the languages with 420, art and culture with 285, and economics and business administration with 280 study circles. In many cases the university study circles have their courses on the university course content in order to enable their students to sit for the university examinations; by this method they obtain the same final qualification as regular university students. The extremely rapid development of adult education within the Swedish universities has caused a certain stagnation within the related courses offered by the university study circles, but on the other hand the number of university study circles with independent course offerings has increased substantially.

The competition from short courses offered by the universities has caused some alarm within the adult education associations. Just as the local government supported adult education at the primary and secondary level developed since 1967 can be regarded as an eleventh adult education association, many of the original ten associations regard the universities with their new activities as a twelfth adult education association. An Adult Education Committee is grappling with the problem of where and how to draw a line between the activities of the adult education associations and the programmes which are organized within the framework of local-government supported adult education and the university, wherever these courses show a distinct similarity to those offered by the adult education organizations. The problem is aggravated by the fact that the adult education associations charge a fee for their courses, whereas the courses offered by the university study circles and the local-government supported courses are free of charge. There is the additional factor that adults who take these courses receive state grants which, unlike the regular student loans, do not have to be repayed.

THE UNIVERSITY AND ADULT EDUCATION IN SWITZERLAND

Arnim Gretler

Introduction and Survey

Switzerland is a small country; its universities can be counted on the fingers of both hands. Eight of these are provincial (canton) universities (Basel, Bern, Fribourg, Geneva, Lausanne, Neuchatel, St. Gallen, Zurich); the remaining are federal technical universities (Zurich and Lausanne). The country's structure -- above all that of the education system -- is federalist and hence a description must deal with peculiarities and distinctions rather than uniform features.

This applies even more so to adult education which exists in many forms but which is fragmented and uncoordinated. It is based mainly on private initiatives and receives only modest public support. Even today it takes place mainly outside the universities.

This paper on the university and adult education in Switzerland is intended as a factual description of the situation as it is at present. However, these very facts -- even though they leave the formulation of problems and evaluation largely to the reader himself -- will show that university adult education in Switzerland is still very much in its infancy. This applies both to the education of adults at universities -- at least if this is measured by the criteria which are usually associated with adult education today -- and to the role of the universities

in the training of adult educators.

This paper describes first the traditional and then the more recent contributions by the universities to adult education (although these are mostly in the form of vocational upgrading); these are described in general terms and then some examples are given. The paper then goes into present trends in educational policy and future prospects for university adult education and closes with a short description of the only contribution which the universities are at present making in the training of adult educators.

Traditional Contributions to Adult Education by the Universities

In Switzerland two forms of general university or partial university adult education and continuing education have been widespread and institutionalized; these are the auditor system and the people's universities. The auditor system in particular has such a long tradition that it is hardly surprising from this point of view if a university, asked how long it has offered continuing education, replies: since the year the university was founded. In the case of the University of Basle this would be the year 1460.

In the following a brief description of both systems will be given.

Auditors

The auditor system exists at all Swiss universities (where three separate Swiss terms are used to describe them: Auditoren, Auskultoren and Freifachhoerer).

Auditors are usually 18 years of age or older; anyone can participate as an auditor in certain university courses (these are usually lectures) without regard to their previous education or their present occupation; such courses are, however, naturally designed for the regular university students. A small fee, which

could be described as symbolic is charged for auditing the courses. Taking part in the courses entitles the auditor to no formal status or other official recognition. Hence the question arises whether the auditor system can meet the expectations which today are associated with general institutionalized university adult education.

Although no statistics are available which could provide information about the socio-economic and educational background of the auditors, the universities constantly stress that the auditors are often people who regard the lectures primarily as a cultural leisure-time activity. Thus it is usually courses in the departments which offer languages and history which attract the most auditors.

People's Universities Affiliated with Universities

It would be inappropriate to go into the history of the Swiss people's universities here. Nevertheless, in the present context it is important that everywhere where there is a university, it is in some way affiliated with the local people's university.

The closeness of this relationship varies greatly. In Basel, for example, the People's University is part of the University itself. It is administered by a commission whose president is selected by the Regents of the University. In other places, e.g. in Zurich, the University's contribution consists in providing the infrastructure (rooms and possibly equipment etc.) and faculty (today, however, in ever decreasing numbers); for the rest it restricts itself to taking its place in the Foundation Council along with the representatives of the City and Canton authorities, the representatives of the Technical University and the secondary schools, the delegates from the trade unions and the employees' associations, the party educational organizations and the women's and youth organizations.

The question as to what influence the link between the people's university and the university has on the nature of the public which attends the people's university programme will

be discussed next; the answer is based on a survey which the Association of the Swiss People's Universities conducted at various local people's universities during the Winter Semester 1969/70.(17)

Naturally, the following data cannot provide absolutely firm information regarding the question of a filter effect which can be anticipated from the affiliation of the people's university with the university. Too many other factors cannot be monitored, for example, contextual and socio-structural differences between the areas from which the people's universities draw their students; as a result no final conclusions can be drawn as to the effect of an independent influence exerted by this affiliation. Thus, the following presentation is intended more to stimulate critical reflection on the role of the universities and their participation in the work of the people's universities.

The discussion of this interrelationship will compare data from the city of Basel, as an example of a high degree of affiliation between the people's university and the university, with data from Zurich, as an example of a moderate degree of affiliation, and finally with data from the Bernese Jura, an area where there is no university affiliation.

Table 1

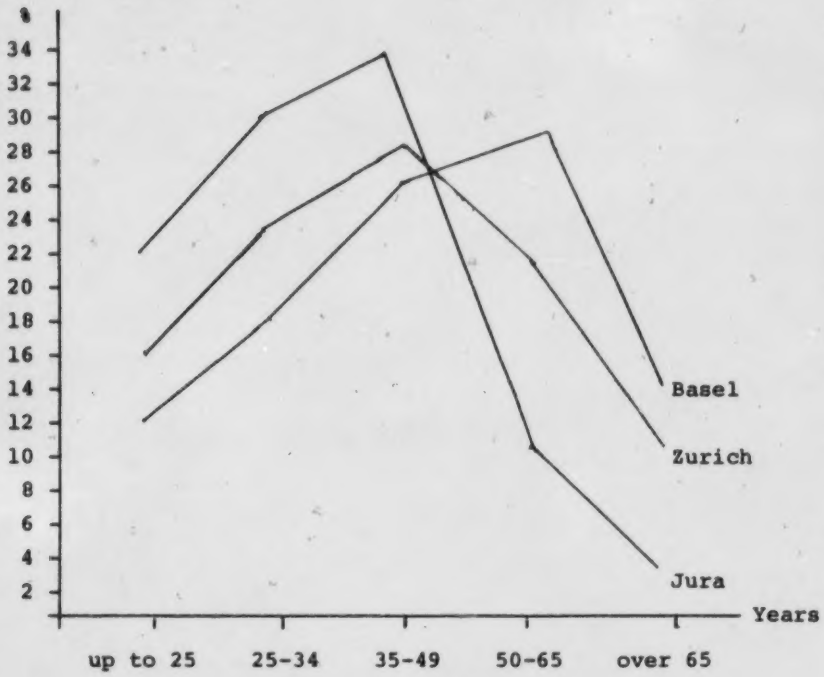
Enrollment by Sex at People's Universities in Basel, Zurich and Bernese Jura

		University affiliation		
		high	medium	none
Students	female	60	60	65
	male	40	40	44

The organizational link between the people's university and the university obviously has no influence on the distribution according to sex in the enrollment at the people's universities.

Figure 1

Enrollment by Age at People's Universities in Basel, Zurich and Bernese Jura



A very obvious negative relationship between affiliation with the university and the average age of the participants at the people's university is apparent.

Table 2

Enrollment by Formal Education at People's Universities in Basel, Zurich and Bernese Jura

Educational Status of PU Enrollees	University Affiliation of the PU		
	high	medium	none
Primary school	3	3	30
Primary school and vocational training	24	39	18
Secondary school and vocational training	47	39	39
Middle school, university	20	13	8
Others, no data	6	6	7
Total	100%	100%	100%

In analysing the data relating to enrollment in terms of formal education it is, by way of contrast, evident that the degree of affiliation with the university exerts a strong influence on the enrollment; the more powerful this influence is, the greater the tendency for the people's university to lose its compensatory function and to attract persons who already have a high degree of formal education.

Consistent with the differences which were found in demographic data, considerable differences are revealed in the expectations of the participants, i.e. what they hope to achieve by their work at the people's university. They were asked what their most important expectation was of the people's university. There was a choice between the following six alternatives: (1) general education, (2) personal continuing education, (3) supplementation

and continuation of the education received at school, (4) courses leading to a comprehensive knowledge in a specific field, (5) improvement of vocational expertise, and (6) advanced courses for persons with various levels of previous training.

Table 3

Enrollment by Personal Expectations at People's Universities in Basel, Zurich and Bernese Jura

Expectations of PU Participants (for categories 1-6 see text on pp. 155-156)	University Affiliation of the PU		
	high	medium	none
1	30	28	26
2	49	47	27
3	5	6	7
4	7	12	19
5	1	3	11
6	2	4	3
Do not know			
No answer	6	3	7
Total	100%	100%	100%

The data shows that where the influence of the university is particularly strong, an enrollment with cultural needs predominates, whereas in the case of a people's university with no university affiliation, participants expect a direct instrumental contribution to the improvement in their situation.

Summing up, it can be said that the degree to which the people's university is associated with the university evidently has a characteristic relationship with certain distinguishing

features of the participants, both in demographic terms and in terms of personal expectations of the people's university. It is evident that where the university itself organizes the people's university (Basel), students evidently come from the upper social strata and use the people's university as a place for cultural encounters. However, where the people's university has no direct link with the university, it is possible to appeal to new layers in the population. Hence it is possible to speak of a genuinely restricting effect which occurs in cases where the people's university is closely associated with the university.

At this point reference needs to be made again to the limitations which were established at the outset of the discussion : the data available here, namely the degree of affiliation of the people's university with a university on the one hand, and the characteristics of the participants at a particular people's university on the other hand, are insufficient to permit any conclusive statements about the effect of the one factor on the other. Above all we lack data as to the causal determinants of the relationship between the people's university and the university.

It is in this light that one must regard the reservations voiced by responsible persons in the Swiss Association of People's Universities regarding excessive dependence on the universities especially, whose paternalism does not always aid the people's universities in the fulfillment of their functions. A certain autonomy with regard to the public education system appears necessary, if the people's universities are to be given an opportunity to fulfill their functions in a meaningful way through appropriate innovations.

Hence what the people's universities are seeking to achieve is less an intensification of their cooperation with the universities, and more the full recognition of their general public function through the provision of an appropriate public legal status, which would also ensure the required funding but which would not result in the people's universities having to be integrated into the state public education administration.

Recent Contributions by the Universities to Adult Education

This section of the paper will summarize briefly the results of a survey on The Policy of the Swiss Universities in the Field of General Continuing Education and Post Diploma Studies which was conducted at all the Swiss universities.(11) Following this some forms of university continuing adult education -- particularly new trends -- will be described.

General Continuing Education

In the field of general continuing education the above-mentioned survey covered a total of 41 activities; (even if individual figures may have in the meantime changed slightly, the overall picture remains essentially valid). These activities are distributed as follows among the individual universities: Basel 6; Bern none; Technical University-Lausanne 2; Technical University-Zurich 1; Fribourg 5; Geneva 8; Lausanne 7; Neuchatel 4; St. Gallen 3; and Zurich 5.

Table 4

Breakdown of Activities in Terms of Course Subjects

(disciplinary emphasis)

Subject	Number of Courses
Theology	7
Law	2
Economics	12
Social Sciences	4
Natural Sciences	12
Applied Sciences	3
Arts	5
Interdisciplinary Emphasis	10

The low figures for the technical universities as well as the University at St. Gallen are surprising, particularly in view of the fact that general continuing education in the natural sciences and economics and commerce seems to be relatively well developed, as Table 4 shows.

The importance which a particular university attributes to these courses naturally cannot be assessed through purely a quantitative compilation of the courses in general continuing education, as long as the quality and nature of the contribution made by the university to activities of this nature is not taken into consideration.

Table 5

University Involvement in
General Continuing Education

Type of Involvement	Number of Courses
The university itself assumes organization and implementation	30
The university supports activities of other organizations with its infrastructure	9
The university supports activities of other organizations with its faculty	13
The university supports activities of other organizations financially	0

It is striking that the universities relatively often participate in activities which they themselves have not organized. The same picture emerged when the data on bodies charged with the organization of continuing education courses are examined.

Table 6

Bodies Responsible for Organization of University Level General Continuing Education

Type of Body	Number of Courses
Body charged with organization identical with body engaged in traditional university activities	12
Specially created university body	2
Special bodies in which, in addition to university, other organizations are represented	9
The university itself not responsible for organization	13

Although the data here is incomplete (in the case of five courses it was not possible to determine who was responsible for the organization), it is evident that only to a very limited degree do the universities operate completely autonomously in the field of continuing education. Only in a third of the cases surveyed do the universities undertake the organization, in all other cases other institutions or organizations are responsible and the universities limit themselves to the provision of certain services.

This kind of collaboration takes place in the great majority of cases with organizations which are closely or loosely connected with industry. This situation reflects the manifest objectives which the universities seek to achieve through their general activities in continuing education as well as the composition of the continuing education participants. Among the chief objectives are the importance of the production sector, the increasing of productivity and efficiency, and the characterization of the students is usually a matter of their vocational status.

Table 7

Collaboration in the Provision of University Level General Continuing Education

Type of Collaboration	Number of Courses
Intra-university	6
Inter-university, national level	7
Inter-university, international level	8
Collaboration with industry	17
Collaboration with mass media	1
Collaboration with the church	5
Collaboration with professional organizations	15

The survey data contained in Tables 8 and 9 is further underscored through the examination of the profile of the participants in university level general continuing education courses, of whom 32 were former university students and 15 were not former university students.

Table 8

Objectives Pursued in University Level General Continuing Education (Participants)

Objective	Number
Promotion oriented continuing education	12
Retraining	0
General enlightenment	30
Increasing of individual competence with reference to society	5
Presenting a specific model of reality	1

Table 9

Objectives Pursued in University Level General Continuing Education (Sponsor)

Objective	Number
Changing the composition of the student body	0
Changing traditional course content	0
Changing traditional methods	1
Counteracting the reduction in the function of the university	0
Opening up the university to practical life (industry)	1
Opening up the university to employed persons	0
Strategy designed to counteract the social isolation of the university	2
Increasing respect for the university within society	1

The heterogeneous nature of the university with regard to university level general continuing education courses is also reflected in the figures which pertain to the teaching faculty. In a high proportion of the continuing education courses the instructors are recruited from outside the university.

Of a total of 108 teaching faculty included in the survey, 42 came from within the university. Among the 33 who came from outside the university, 9 came from the civil service, 16 from industry, 4 from trade unions and professional associations, one was an expert in continuing education, and three were teachers from secondary schools and other specialized teachers.

Post-Diploma Studies

Of the 57 individual post-diploma courses which were surveyed, the distribution among the individual Swiss universities is

as follows: Basel 1, Bern 5, Technical University-Lausanne 9, Technical University-Zurich 5, Fribourg 4, Geneva 20, Lausanne 8, Neuchatel 5, St. Gallen none, and Zurich none.

The survey shows that post-diploma studies are more developed in the French area of Switzerland than in the German area although Bern, due to its proximity to the French-speaking area, has easy access to the courses offered by the French language universities and can participate in these (by agreement with the Conventions Romandes). In the German language area of Switzerland the Technical University-Zurich is an exception, showing an unusually strong development of post-diploma studies for this part of the country. This is obviously related to the fact that the 3rd cycle for the time being appears to be important, above all in the natural and applied sciences.

Table 10

Course Content in Post-Diploma Studies
(disciplinary emphasis)

Subject	Number of Courses
Theology	5
Law	1
Economics	2
Social Sciences	1
Natural Sciences	28
Applied Sciences	8
Arts	7

Here again, as in the discussion of the data relating to general continuing education, it must be pointed out that a purely quantitative analysis does not reflect the situation accurately. An evaluation of the data relating to the nature of the contribution by the universities to these courses reveals a distinctly different picture.

Table 11

University Involvement in Post-Diploma Studies

Type of Involvement	Number of Courses
The university organizes and gives the course	50
The university supports the activities of other institutions with its infrastructure	0
The university supports the activities of other institutions financially	5
The university supports the activities of other institutions with personnel	2

As the survey shows, in most cases the university itself organizes the courses. In about half of the cases the responsible bodies are specifically and exclusively competent for post-diploma studies, whereas in the other cases they are identical with those who offer the other university courses.

Table 12

Bodies Responsible for Organization of Post-Diploma Studies

Type of Body	Number of Courses
Body identical with that normally offering university courses	27
Specially created 3rd cycle body	28
Mixed groups: in addition to the university, other groups represented	2

The question as to what kind of collaboration resulted from the 3rd cycle courses produced the following answers.

Table 13

Collaboration in the Provision of Post-Diploma Studies

Type of Collaboration	Number of Courses
Intra-university	25
Inter-university, national level	51
Inter-university, international level	20
Collaboration with industry	4
Collaboration with mass media	0
Collaboration with international organizations	11
Collaboration with professional organizations	6
Collaboration with Federal Government and Cantons	22

A distinct emphasis on collaboration between the different universities emerges, whereas -- and this is a distinct contrast to the findings for general continuing education -- collaboration with industry seems to be less evident in post-diploma studies.

It appears that the development of post-diploma studies represents a kind of opportunity for the universities to defend themselves against the transfer of research from the educational institutions to industry. This assumption is based on the findings in the area which was already discussed, namely the relatively extensive organizational autonomy enjoyed by the universities in the field of post-diploma studies; it is corroborated by the data on the recruitment of teaching faculty.

Of a total of 125 teaching faculty in post-diploma studies, included in the survey, 50 were recruited from their own university, while 51 were recruited from other universities

and 24 were recruited from sources other than universities.

General Continuing Education and Post-Diploma Studies as Aspects of Two Different University Policies

In the following the attempt will be made to reduce continuing education and post-diploma studies to model types and to interpret them as the expression of two different university policies, which can be called the policy of autonomy and the policy of fusion.

In order to elaborate the post-diploma programme model and the general continuing education model, a systematic comparison is offered below of the frequency of occurrence of some central characteristics to which reference has been made above.

Table 14

Comparison of Central Characteristics of University Level General Continuing Education and Post-Diploma Studies

Characteristic	General Education		Post-Diploma	
	absolute	as %	absolute	as %
1. Contribution of the university				
- Assumes organization itself	30	58	48	87
- Supports with infra-structure	9	17	0	0
- Supports with faculty	13	25	2	3
- Supports financially	0	0	5	9
2. Commissioned body				
- Identical with other university bodies	12	50	27	47
- Special university body	2	9	28	50
- Mixed body	9	41	2	3

Comparison of Central Characteristics of University Level General Continuing Education and Post-Diploma Studies (cont'd.)

Characteristics	General Education		Post-Diploma	
	absolute	as %	absolute	as %
3. Subject				
- Theology	7	18	5	10
- Law	2	5	1	2
- Economics	6	16	2	4
- Social Sciences	4	10	1	2
- Natural Sciences	12	30	28	56
- Applied Sciences	3	7	8	16
- Arts	5	13	5	10
4. Methods				
- Lectures	2	26	6	4
- Seminars	26	31	55	40
- Practical work	35	42	79	56
5. Faculty				
- Recruited within university	42	55	101	80
- Recruited outside university	3	45	25	20
6. Cooperation				
- Within the university	21	36	96	69
- Outside the university	38	64	43	31

In very general and simplified terms it can be said that the universities organize general continuing education in a form which institutionalizes strong external co-determination: the influence which the university itself can exert on the programmes

and courses offered is greatly reduced, both because of factors originating at the organizational level as well as through the hiring of instructors from outside the university and the strong emphasis on collaboration with sectors outside the university. For reasons which cannot be explained here, the university makes itself dependent on other sectors of society. An extension of general continuing education thus does not appear normally to promote autonomy but rather to have the opposite effect.

On the other hand post-diploma studies appear as the activity through which the universities emphasize autonomy: the university claims as its responsibility the planning, organization and conduct of such programmes and special organs are created for this purpose. Interaction occurs mainly within the educational institution itself; recruitment of instructors outside the university is minimal. It is striking that those disciplines which are also promoted outside the educational institution (theology in church institutions, economics and commerce within industry) tend to be given less consideration, perhaps because the policy of autonomy would be endangered. It should also be noted here that what the post-diploma courses deal with is obviously primarily knowledge generation. In contrast to the data on general continuing education, methods which seek the mere diffusion of knowledge (lectures which limit the student mainly to the reception of the material offered) are hardly used; instead more active methods are employed, such as colloquia and courses which involve student participation.

It must be stressed that the typological distinction made in the models between general continuing education as a policy of fusion, and post-diploma studies as a policy of autonomy, are naturally contractions and simplifications of reality. In order to undertake a wider and more detailed analysis, it would be necessary to show where and when the individual universities initiate the policy of fusion within the field of post-diploma studies (as for example in the case of the University of Lausanne in connection with the IMEDE) or emphasize a policy of autonomy within the field of general continuing education (as for example

in the case of the University of Geneva and their Secretariat for Education Permanente). An analysis of this kind would, however, go beyond the purpose of this paper.

Examples of Some Forms of University Continuing and Adult Education

In this section first two forms of relatively conventional university vocational continuing education are described and then two examples of new trends in university adult education, namely the senior citizens universities and the credit system at the Faculty of Psychology and Education at the University of Geneva.

Continuing Education at the University of St. Gallen for Economics, Administration and Social Sciences

The so-called Continuing Education Level has existed at the University of St. Gallen, which institutionalizes the continuing education of graduates in state and business administration since 1968.

The Continuing Education Level is an established unit in the university organization with its own permanent organs (Commission for the Continuing Education Level, Commissioner for the Continuing Education Level, Alumni Council). Its programme is aimed primarily at executive and managerial personnel from Switzerland, the Federal Republic of Germany and Austria, as well as local commerce teachers.

The professional continuing education concept comprises the following five types of seminars.

(1) Orientation seminars: at intervals of several years the attempt is made to provide a survey of new trends in the whole range of disciplines offered at the University of St. Gallen.

(2) General seminars in economics, administration and the social sciences: these seminars deal with basic or topical subjects.

(3) Method-oriented seminars: the goal of these seminars is the training or continuing education of students in the application of recent methods in the fields of economics, administration and the social sciences.
(4) Seminars oriented towards spheres of responsibility: in these seminars basic or topical problems from individual areas of responsibility are dealt with on an interdisciplinary basis utilising new research data.
(5) Branch-oriented seminars: these deal with problems of individual branches of the economy; the courses for commerce teachers also fall within this category.

The seminars organized by the Continuing Education Level usually develop from research projects of the individual institutes. The supervisor of a research project of this kind usually joins in the seminar planning as the university teacher in charge of the project and also gives some reports in the seminar. Besides other instructors from the university, additional teachers from outside the university as well as persons from industry and government are employed. A written questionnaire is administered to the participants at the conclusion of each seminar in order to provide information as to the success of the course and suggestions for its improvement.

Courses offered by the Continuing Education Level must be financially self-supporting and appropriate fees are charged.

In addition to cooperation within the university these continuing education seminars also lead to close contacts with business and industry and with government. Here the Alumni Council has its function, since it represents a kind of intermediary between the university and business and industry. Relatively close collaboration with the professional association has become institutionalized through the seminars for commerce teachers.

In addition, the individual institutes of the University of St. Gallen organize events (courses, congresses etc.) aimed at persons active in government and business and industry; these have no educational restrictions with regard to participation.

The Communaute Romande pour l'Economie d'Entreprises (COREDE)

The COREDE is a foundation in which the five universities of French Switzerland and the regional industries collaborate in the continuing education of executive and managerial personnel from business and industry.

The working-meetings and seminars which last several days (some are also seminar series which last longer) and which normally are conducted outside the university, consist of lectures, colloquia, working groups and practical work (short periods spent in industrial plants) dealing with interdisciplinary topics in industrial management. There are no formal admission requirements, although in each case the programme contains a relatively explicit description of the group for which each seminar is intended.

Instructors are recruited from the five universities as well as from business and industry and, in part, from government. The seminars are financially self-supporting and costs are covered by course fees.

The Senior Citizens' Universities at the Universities of Geneva and Neuchatel

In the Autumn of 1975 course offerings at the University of Geneva were extended to include a programme for senior citizens which consists of lectures, panel discussions, discussions, films and guided tours. From the outset this programme enjoyed a wide popularity which has constantly increased; whereas at the outset there were 638 participants in the programme, after only 6 months there were more than 1,000 and in the Spring of 1977 the enrollment figure had reached 1,680.

The programme is organized by a committee of seventeen persons (of these eight are senior citizens) and has the following goals: (a) Cultural enrichment, (b) overcoming the loneliness of old people, (c) introduction to new activities, (d) intermixing of the generations, (e) treatment of the specific problems of old age, and (f) development of international solidarity. The regular teaching faculty of the University offer their services

for the conduct of the courses.

The experience gathered with the Senior Citizens' University is being evaluated with reference to further development and extension of such activities. This evaluation uncovered part of the present problem in the average profile of the participants: what emerges is a socially well-integrated middle class or upper middle class person who is thus financially better off than the average pensioner.(9)

On a smaller scale and on an experimental basis courses for senior citizens were offered at the University of Neuchatel in the academic year 1976/77. These courses too are being evaluated with a view to the extension of this activity.(3)

The Credit System in the Education Department of the Faculty of Psychology and Education of the University of Geneva

In the academic year 1972/73 a system of units and credits was introduced within the Education Department of the Faculty of Psychology and Education of the University of Geneva.(10) This innovation which -- as will be demonstrated -- takes into account essential principles of current adult education, was possible because of the coincidence and particular constellation of various factors. On the one hand the Department was for various reasons in an acute crisis which even threatened to close it down; on the other hand a considerable potential for ideas and proposals for reform was available. This situation coincided with the demand by the Geneva Teachers' Association that the University provide continuing education of teachers and the very clearly expressed desire of the University Administration to contribute to education permanente within the framework of the University.

The basic idea of the credit system consisted in ending the traditional system of studies which is conceived of in terms of semesters and years of study, and in replacing it with an individualized programme which takes into account the time that is available to each student and his specific interests. At the same time part-time study by employed adults was officially

recognized as a fully-fledged form of study. In addition to the units of course work, a certain number of which lead to the completion of the degree programme, elements of basic training and practical experience were granted an equal status -- where the student has had at least three years of practical vocational experience.

Through this new form of study -- adult education at the university -- in an initial phase courses were given which appealed primarily to teachers, school inspectors, social workers and training personnel for health care workers.

The innovation caused a massive rise in the number of Education students (from 233 in 1969/70 to 551 in 1976/77) as well as a radical change in their age structure.

Table 15

Education Department, University of Geneva: Participants by Age, 1975-76

	Credential	Post-Credential	Candidates	Total	%
30 years or over	177	60	8	245	46.7
25-29	100	9	16	125	23.8
under 25	52		102	154	29.5
Total	329	69	126	524	100.0

As the table shows about half (46.7 per cent) of the present Education students are over 30 years of age. This produces a mixture of ages within the total student body and leads to interaction between the students with and without vocational experience. As a result of this structural change in the student

body, the Department is changing more and more from an institution providing basic training to one offering further training.

The courses offered in the Department are divided into the following four areas: (a) Focussed on the individual; (b) focussed on groups, institutions and society; (c) psycho-pedagogical and didactic; and (d) focussed on research and methods. As a result of the increased enrollment and the attention which is paid to individual interests, the number of courses rose from 44 in the academic year 1972/73 to 111 in the academic year 1976/77.

Under the system of individual choice there was a change in the emphasis on various functions; student counselling and the organization of individual student programmes is now as important as teaching itself.

A further radical change is taking place in evaluation of student achievement. Through the introduction of the credit system, the system under which a satisfactory average grade is the condition for the successful completion of a programme of studies has been replaced by the system under which completion of the individual courses (obtaining the required number of credits) leads to the successful completion of the degree or other qualification. The evaluation of the individual units of study is undertaken in a wide variety of ways.

The content of individual courses is negotiated between students and instructors. Compared with the situation in traditional university teaching the relationship between the knowledge and experience of the instructor and the student has fundamentally changed. The change in course contents has meant that the courses are constantly being revised and adapted to the particular needs of the students, a fact which -- despite the increase in the number of part-time instructors -- has meant a considerable increase in the work-load of the instructor.

Some doubts have been expressed with regard to the research policy of the Department, since the traditional function of research (generation of knowledge) is confronted with a new function (the solution of urgent problems arising from practical

work in the field).

The main concern of the Department in the present situation of innovation is the constant search for a balance; a balance in the conflict between growing specialization in individual Education courses, accompanied by a tendency towards more stringent admission requirements, and the basic idea of individual choice as the underlying principle of the programme of study; balance also between precisely this almost unlimited choice and the protection of the polyvalence of a university degree which continues to be regarded as necessary. In order to preserve this polyvalence, it proved necessary to demand a certain balance in individual student programmes between the four above mentioned areas, i.e. to impose a measure of restriction on the freedom of choice.

Contribution of the Universities to the Training of Adult Educators

If one disregards certain courses which are offered at various universities, above all within the framework of programmes in Education, Social Education, Psychology and Theology, it is relatively easy to describe the universities' contribution to the training of adult educators. With the exception of the University of Geneva, where one Assistant Professor and several Lecturers form a Department of Adult Education within the Faculty of Psychology and Education, there is no Chair for Adult Education in the entire country. Hence reference must again be made to the University of Geneva. The following information is based on an earlier publication of the Work Group for University Adult Education. (4)

Advanced Studies Programme in Adult Education in the Department of Adult Education at the Faculty of Psychology and Education of the University of Geneva

(1) History and Institutional Framework

Since 1974 it has been possible to acquire in this Faculty a

Diploma d'Etudes Avancées, mention Education des Adultes. This is offered by the University of Geneva which also provides the funding. The Department of Adult Education has one Assistant Professor, four Lecturers and seven Assistants and various persons with short-term appointments who are employed from time to time.

(2) Target Groups and Participants in the Programme
The Programme is open to persons active in adult education provided that they have passed the State Examination or have an equivalent diploma and have had at least 3 years of experience in adult education teaching. In 1977 approximately 30 persons from French and Italian Switzerland, France and Canada studied in the Department. There are special courses for personnel in the womens', workers' and handicapped persons' sectors.

(3) Goal of the Training and Types of Diploma
The Programme is intended to provide information about the current situation in adult education, facilitate reflection on the student's own experience in the field, as well as provide an opportunity for academic work in the student's field of special interest or the Department's area of research. The Diploma is granted as soon as confirmation is provided that the 8 units of study (lectures, seminars, courses with student participation) have been completed. The student's programme is individually arranged on the basis of consultation. The Diploma enjoys relatively wide public recognition as a university qualification.

(4) Contents and Methods
The course contents change from year to year but regularly deal with psychological, sociological and economic aspects of adult education, questions of teaching methods, as well as structural problems of the education system. Points of emphasis in course work and research in recent years were paid educational leave, evaluation and workers' education. The methods are those normally used at universities with a very marked element of co-determination by the students

which also extends to the administration of the Department. The latter already has various publications to its credit.

(5) Relationship with Practical Life and Cooperation with Sponsors of Adult Education

One of the main characteristics of the work of the Department is that it has crossed the conventional border lines of university work and has collaborated closely with trade unions, womens' organizations, institutions for the handicapped, the communities etc.

(6) Organization

The Programme of Advanced Studies is a one-year programme but usually takes two or more years to complete, above all because of the emphasis on field work. Various course components take place outside the university, in suburbs, new housing areas, trade union centres etc. The costs are linked to the normal university fees.

University versus Non-academic Training of Adult Educators*

The wide, indeed almost exclusive experience with non-academic training programmes -- the Faculty at Geneva is the sole exception -- naturally means that in Switzerland, university training for adult educators is not simply regarded without reservation and uncritically as the perfect solution. Underlying this point of view may be an element of justification for the methods hitherto adopted by Swiss adult education. The reason for the sceptical assessment of exclusively academic training of personnel is, however, also a desire to avoid at all costs two dangers (particularly in the light of previous experience in the Federal Republic of Germany): overemphasis on theory in adult education and overqualification of adult education personnel. The latter can be seen in the fact that there are simply too many good, too highly-trained, candidates available for the

* The following remarks are also based on the study by Armand Claude to which reference was already made above.(4) They are representative for Swiss adult education but do not in every respect reflect the views of the present author.

limited number of positions available in Swiss adult education. There are also fields, for example continuing education for workers or parents, where an exclusively academic training can be a disadvantage rather than an advantage. That is not in any sense to imply that for such basic functions in adult education, personnel should be less well trained; it is much rather a question of the desired educational requirements and the most meaningful special training of adult education personnel which, from the Swiss perspective, need not necessarily be academic training. On the other hand a university training is doubtless necessary for various functions within adult education; this makes an increased commitment by the universities imperative.

Present Trends and Future Prospects in Educational Policy in the Field of University Adult Education

The Swiss Academic Council, as the senior advisory organ of the Swiss Government has, among other things, the following responsibilities: (a) The drawing up of guidelines for the extension of and collaboration between the Swiss universities, whilst preserving the autonomy of the Swiss Provinces (Cantons) in matters of school and university education; (b) the drawing up of recommendations for the promotion of the universities and the effective fulfillment of their responsibilities in teaching and research (these recommendations are made to the Federal Department of the Interior and the Universities Conference; and (c) advising the universities on the reform of their structure and working methods.

In the summer of 1978 the Academic Council will publish its Third Report on the Extension of the Swiss Universities.(15) As in the first two reports, quantitative aspects of university education will play an important role, but qualitative considerations have become much more prominent. An innovation in this context is that questions of adult education are dealt with in the report; in the chapter on "Aspects of General Educational Policy"

an entire section is devoted to the problems of adult education.

An important concern of the Third Report on Extension is "to call attention to the increasing need for opportunities to participate in adult education. The contribution of the universities would consist in making their course offerings accessible to a wide circle of persons and at the same time creating special continuing education courses, also for interested persons without previous university education. In the opinion of the Academic Council the primary objective at present is to recognize the promotion of adult education at the universities as a project of great importance for future developments and to integrate it into current reform planning. Thus decisions would be avoided which could later make the extension of adult education more difficult".

The relaxation of admission requirements -- as is currently being tried out in Geneva -- is regarded as entirely worthy of support where an appropriate extension of course offerings is undertaken.

In the non-university sector of post-secondary education the Academic Council diagnoses a lack of horizontal mobility and of organized cooperation between the component parts. An effective means of improving such cooperation is seen in the creation of training profiles, in which components of the training which were previously given at separate institutions are consolidated into new training courses. "This would achieve a contribution to the qualitative enrichment of opportunities for training (diversification) at the post-secondary level; it would at the same time create a prerequisite for the extension of adult education."

Assuming that the primary justification offered for the required extension of adult education is to provide the individual throughout his life with the possibility of realising and extending his capacity to act, the Academic Council expresses its commitment to the concept of recurrence as the means to achieve life-long learning. Hence even the various forms of basic education are to be designed for recurrent continuing

education. It is consistent with the foregoing goals that legislation to regulate paid educational leave is called for, since it is usually only with the existence of such legislation that participation in longer continuing education courses, which alternate with employment, is possible. Two other basic aspects of recurrence are also explicitly accepted: "Admission is to be less dependent on formal proof of achievement than upon effective prior training (which can also be acquired through practical experience)", and "the programmes shall in part consist of units of learning which can be combined in various ways and when so combined lead to a successful completion of the programme".

A long road remains to be travelled before the recommendations of the Academic Council summarized briefly here are implemented. The universities themselves, or at least some of them, will resist the new functions which have been foreseen for them in the field of adult education. It will be even more difficult to implement innovations which require legislative or consitutional changes, i.e. which will require the expression of the opinions of the voters.

Three examples from recent and very recent history, which are very directly related to the problems dealt with here, provide grounds for scepticism.

In March of 1973 the Federal Proposal Concerning the Amendment of the Federal Constitution with Regard to the Education System was accepted by a slim majority in the popular vote but rejected by the Provinces (Cantons) by 11½ to 10½ votes. Among other things this constitutional amendment would have authorized the Federal Government to establish principles for the organization and extension of adult education.

On May 28, 1978 the Swiss electorate rejected the Federal Law on the Promotion of the Universities and on Research by a vote of 56.6 per cent against and 43.4 per cent in favour.

Since the Provincial Legislature of the Province of Aargau in the Autumn of 1976 rejected by a narrow vote the proposal to support the project of an Aargau University Institute for Education, the chances that this project will be realized have decreased

enormously. Among other things the project included the detailed planning of a Department of Adult Education. (7, 16)

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ADULT PART-TIME STUDY AT YUGOSLAV UNIVERSITIES

Ana Krajnc

Education and schooling in Yugoslavia have recently been undergoing radical changes. They are being given special attention and have more than any other social process become the subject of public debates, which deal with the issue primarily in connection with work and self-management. In an effort to design an adequate educational model, social interests are being given special emphasis. Now more than ever before social objectives in education and schooling are being put in relief. Within the developments and changes in the realm of education as a whole, changes in the realm of higher education have become necessary.

Some General Trends in the Realm of Education

Industrial growth and the development of social relations have greatly increased the need for knowledge. Therefore in Yugoslavia, as in other countries, the schooling of the young was continuously extended; an ever growing proportion of the young continued their studies after finishing compulsory (8 years) schooling. Some 40 to 70 per cent of the young (the percentage varied for different areas of Yugoslavia) continued their schooling at various types of secondary schools. The ever increasing need for knowledge, especially on the job, forced the young to enter institutions of higher education. Conducive

to this end were some other factors, such as: increasing aspirations for education, the democratization in the realm of education, the ever increasing concentration of the population in cities where education is more readily available, the rising living standard etc.

Not all young people, however, who were exposed to these factors, did have equal opportunities to continue their studies at institutions of higher education either because of objective reasons (living too far from adequate schools), or lack of required preparatory training, or because they held a job for which they had been trained at vocational schools. The greatest differences, however, in the opportunities to enroll at the university were due to the fact that the young people were trained in different types of secondary schools. Secondary schools and some secondary vocational schools led directly to the university whereas the remaining types of schools trained their pupils primarily for a job as a result of which it was only an exception that their pupils continued their studies at a higher scholastic level. They were admitted to institutions of higher learning only after taking an entrance examination. These examinations, however, were so demanding that only few pupils from vocational schools or pupils with some other 'inadequate education' were able to pass them, notwithstanding the fact that workers were granted this opportunity by law. Thus part-time study developed rather slowly. Most of the requests for education were granted by some types of secondary schools that gave a somewhat more free access to the general population of students (School of Business Management, School of Work Organization, etc.). Candidates with inadequate secondary education had little choice and sought further education at institutions at which part-time study was better organized and which offered better opportunities for further studies irrespective of what vocation they themselves would have liked to adopt.

In order to do away with these anomalies, and in order to give all equal opportunities for further studies and at the same

time to satisfy the demands of society for education, a reform was launched of all educational institutions above the eight-year compulsory school. First the reform of secondary schooling was undertaken with the end in view to do away with the dualism of the secondary school and to ensure that part-time study was put on a par with regular studies. Thus adult education at the university level was an extension of part-time education at lower educational levels. The reform was also to solve some other urgent educational problems.

In the meantime the curricula had become too bulky and increasingly estranged from practice and life. The final process of training and the actual preparation for a job began only after one's entering upon a job. The process of training following schooling was becoming ever so protracted. The schools were accused of poorly preparing their graduates for the actual functions they were expected to carry out in our society even though the curricula were too demanding and too bulky. Thus the reform brought about changes also in the curricula, which were not to be tailored as though they were something static and final but were to follow the concept of life-long education. Part of the content of the existing programmes was to be omitted and offered later in the form of continuing education, while some subjects were to be extended over a longer period of time and were to be included in the university studies as general subjects (these are primarily subjects of general educational value).

The curricula of regular schooling and of part-time schooling are designed in such a manner that they take into account later continuing education following regular schooling. Regular studies, part-time study and continuing education are three equivalent parallel branches of higher education. As a general trend in the realm of education also the phenomenon that part-time education is given an increasingly strong emphasis is discernible. Adult education and regular schooling (education of school-age children) have been given equal social status by the reform.

The reform introduced also technical training into all

regular schools, accepting at the same time the experience gained previously by workers who come back to school for further education. The experience gained on the job is on a par with the acquired knowledge in school. Thus the schooling of the young and that of adults are fused into a uniform indivisible system. This being so the social status of adult education has risen, for it has up till now been claimed that adult education plays only a subordinated social role.

The new aspects of adult education and its new social evaluation offer great opportunities for a fast development of part-time study at the university level and help to overcome the difficulties of, prejudices against and doubts about part-time study at some institutions of higher education, especially some colleges and art academies. It is for this reason that the changes introduced by the reform into education and schooling should not be ignored whenever we speak of the development of part-time study in Yugoslavia.

Stages in the Development of Part-time Study

So far three characteristic stages in the development of part-time study in Yugoslavia can be discerned. Within this chronological framework part-time study has gained momentum, has spread, has earned public respect and has at the same time changed qualitatively in such a manner as to meet the needs of practical life, to further social development and to comply with the principles of andragogic theory and andragogic science.

The first stage is represented by the transition from irregular studies to part-time study. Even today part-time study is frequently equated with irregular studies even though they are two different and distinct pedagogic phenomena; they are also distinguished in pedagogic theory and practices.

Irregular studies are defined as individual study mainly on the principle of self-education. This form of education has been resorted to primarily by a person who for one or another reason has dropped out from regular schooling. Irregular studies have not been characterized by any one typical form of

the educational process; every irregular student has organized his study all by himself and thus differed from case to case. Every irregular student fought all by himself his way to an examination or diploma. Irregular studies were by and large self-education. It is, however, well known that pure forms of self-education are fraught with numerous drawbacks and that they no longer keep pace with the rhythm of modern life especially because they are not efficient enough. Nowadays time has become a decisive factor in numerous decisions. Fraught with all the shortcomings of self-education, irregular studies are becoming an increasingly impracticable form for meeting the need for knowledge. In the face of all this, the studies took too long a time while the effect was rather scanty. Further development, moreover, was greatly influenced by the fact that irregular studies could be done only in some disciplines, primarily those which do not entail practical, experimental or laboratory work. Thus irregular students had limited possibilities in the choice of disciplines. Irregular study of medicine, chemistry, biology and similar disciplines was impossible so that only social sciences and the humanities were accessible.

Irregular studies were primarily compensatory education in which the candidates followed the standard regular programme. Part-time study, on the other hand, is based on group study and learning by adults, springing from broader needs of society (and not only of individuals) for education and is therefore qualitatively different from irregular studies. Part-time study is not only compensatory study but also is innovative.

Adult students enroll and follow programmes specially designed for them. They, however, can follow also entirely novel programmes (innovational education), which did not yet exist at the time these students obtained their regular schooling. Being based on previously acquired knowledge and experience, part-time curricula normally differ from regular ones; they are tailored to do justice to the previous knowledge and experience of adults.

The organization of curricula is closely connected with the problem of the duration of part-time study. Judging from

experience, part-time study still takes longer than regular study, even though in view of the previously acquired knowledge, experience and maturity of adults one would expect the opposite to be true. The reason for this protracted duration of study is that the criteria for establishing and evaluating the adult students' previous knowledge and experience are deficient. Since in most cases the criteria are missing, all this is neglected and part-time students are offered a repetition of the standard regular programme. Such a situation, however, is a warning that in this area we are still lagging behind, for we have succeeded in solving only some problems posed by part-time study whereas others are still open. Frequently part-time study is inefficiently organized, the students are offered material they know already for our criteria are still only formal education, teaching periods, lectures and subjects. The material takes practically no issues, is rigidly presented and suffers from the formalism with which regular study is saddled.

Part-time study has originated in response to a massive need for knowledge and is an expression of a general social interest. Unlike former irregular students, part-time students do no longer depend on self-education only -- part-time study is a special form of higher learning and represents a continuous and completently conducted educational process, differing from regular full-time study by being specially programmed and organized. Besides being differently programmed, part-time education boasts a different didactic approach. The aims and objectives of part-time education, however, are the same as those of regular study, as are the criteria for the evaluation of knowledge (however they are arrived at along different routes).

In the first stage of the development of part-time study there were only few centers offering well designed curricula. Part-time study was still looked at askance and found its way only into less prestigeous institutions of higher education where the needs of practical life were obvious.

The new Higher Education Act which each of the Yugoslav

republics promulgated in the years 1974 and 1975 set part-time study on a par with regular full-time study. In this second stage of the development part-time study became part and parcel of the entire educational system. Under the new socio-economic conditions in the area of education and schooling, irregular studies definitely withered away. Financial aid was granted only to group programmes that had been tested and evaluated.

This second stage in the development of part-time study was characterized primarily by a fast quantitative growth. The number of part-time students increased rapidly while part-time programmes were being offered in entirely new branches of knowledge.

In addition to this quantitative growth the second stage was characterized by certain qualitative changes: the relations between part-time and regular education had undergone an alteration. Part-time education began to influence the organization, the programming and the remaining problems of regular education. At the beginning there was a one-way connection so that regular study programmes exerted their influence on part-time study whereas now the influence was also the other way round. In the advanced educational process so many new things had happened that the already organized and traditional regular full-time programmes could no longer retain their original form. The changes brought upon regular full-time study by part-time study can be summarized as follows: (a) regular study programmes were remolded into a more consistent educational process and began to function as a more clearly determined uniform system, less dependent on the methods of individual teachers or on their personal professional interests; and (b) regular study adopted an increasing number of new didactic approaches and techniques of advanced education applicable to both regular students and adults at the university.

Relative to the change referred to above, it can be stated that the reorganization of regular full-time study is well under way. Thus many colleges and other higher education institutions have been articulating their curricula so that single subjects

supplement each other and tie in with each other in view of the fundamental educational aims and objectives. This being so the university has attained the character of a mass school. The teacher is chosen in accordance with the demands of the curriculum and not the other way round when the teaching programme (curriculum) at the university had been tailored to suit the professional interests and specialities of the teacher.

A comparison of the programmes of the same discipline at various universities revealed that they differed widely, whereas the curricula of secondary schools showed practically no differences. At the university level it was frequently found that entire areas of knowledge in one discipline were missing because no competent teacher was available, whereas other areas of knowledge were overemphasized if staff interests were involved. In some university departments two teachers for the same area of knowledge were employed with the result that the subject was allotted many more teaching periods a week. With the development of part-time study university programmes have been standardized. The criteria according to which subjects are being chosen are dictated by educational aims and objectives as they are at lower level schools.

Thus also the remaining pattern of study is becoming better organized and predetermined. As a rule examination dates are fixed in advance for the whole scholastic year and tests are given at least once monthly. Consultations, teachers' office hours and other help offered to students are also fixed.

The problem of the duration of study is acute. The average completion time needed for a discipline demanding 4 years (8 semesters) has been 7 years. The crowded universities simply cannot endure such retardation because it creates financial and staff problems. As long as there were only a handful of students enrolled at the universities, that is, a low percentage of the young generation, one or another student could afford to extend his studies. Mass enrollment, however, makes protracted study no longer feasible.

Under the influence of part-time study, didactics at the

higher education institutions have been undergoing a rapid development. Short courses model has been introduced also in regular full-time study and has at some departments become a sine qua non for the so-called year-by-year study where the student undergoes tests in all the required subjects before the beginning of the new scholastic year. The short course system enables the students to finish some subjects immediately after the end of the course, at mid-year, or later. Thanks to the introduction of the short course system, the students have had occasionally fewer lectures and a greater opportunity for other more creative forms of study.

Following the practice established in part-time study, an increasing amount of written material is being used also in regular full-time study. There is also an ever increasing output of text-books, manuals, expositions, written directions, etc. Without all these facilities part-time study would not be feasible, but regular full-time study also greatly profits from them. Part-time study has also given an impetus to the use of different audio-visual teaching aids which up to now have been rarely used at the university level, even though they have been widely used at the elementary and secondary school level.

The above shows that some rather unconventional forms of education and ever so much practical work have become part and parcel of regular study. Thus regular study should go hand in hand with cultural engagement, socio-political actions, and the practical work in various organizations of associated labour. The full-time students are required to do practical work in order to gain experience acquired otherwise by adults on the job. In these ways, the profile of the regular student and that of the part-time study gradually approach along several routes. This in turn ties in with the <u>further development</u>. In the light of the existing trends the question arises of what is going to happen in a few years if the nubmer of part-time students will increase so fast and so steadily. The percentage of part-time students has in some departments even exceeded that of regular full-time students so that one is justified to ask whether at

rate of development a day might not come when there would be no full-time students at all.

The answer lies in the reform of part-time education and in the new Part-Time Education Act involving secondary schools and institutions of advanced learning as an undivisible system, intrinsically connected and intertwined. After nation-wide public discussions, the Yugoslav constituent republics have promulgated their Part-Time Education Act in 1977 or 1978. With this, part-time study has reached a new stage in which the entire advanced education system will be transformed into adult education and will no longer be divided into regular and part-time education but into part-time education and recurrent education. A student will be able to enroll in a university only after having held a job for a while and having gained some experience in practical work. In the face of the financial capacities of the organizations of associated labour, it is justified to expect that at least at the beginning part-time studies will prevail, because recurrent education would put them under too great financial and other obligations to the students they had sent back to school.

The clearest picture of the aims and objectives of the part-time education can be obtained by reading those passages of the prepared law that concern the status of students. In Yugoslavia the debate about the status of students has been going on for a long time. It is closely connected with the policy of scholarship funds distribution which, in spite of several efforts, could not meet all the needs and satisfy all the ambitions because of the ever increasing number of enrolled students. The debates about scholarship funds distribution have led to the conclusion that our society is not so rich (nor is any other society, for that matter) as to solve the problem of the ever increasing need for and aspirations after knowledge by simply handing out student grants. Thus an alternative solution had to be found. It is obvious that part-time study offers such an alternative.

The part-time student has an orderly social status, holds

job, is financially independent and can assume his duties and exercise his rights within the framework of the Yugoslav self-management system. There is not much fear of a part-time student failing in his studies. If his job ties in with his study because he works in an industrial branch similar to the discipline he studies, then he will have even an advantage over the regular students; he will bring to the lecture or laboratory a certain amount of applicable practical knowledge whereas the regular student will have to begin at the beginning and will greatly depend on the teacher's rendition of the subject. The pieces of information held by a part-time student come from several sources and thus may supplement each other, are more copious and may even shorten part-time study.

Regular students who have struggled with the problem of scholarships and have had the feeling that they stand on the fringe of social events, have increasingly felt and constantly pointed to the differences in their social status as compared to that of the part-time students. In spite of some dilemmas, they have come to see the advantages of part-time study and have begun a struggle for an improvement of their own status which, however, cannot be radically changed if they do not accept new additional responsibilities. The reform visualizes a close tie-in of all students with associated labour bodies. In this way the social status of the students will change and they will gradually assume the character of part-time students. By this not only the problem of the regular students' means of subsistence can be solved, but also their social status extended, because they become part and parcel of the production and self-management system. Thus the entire higher education would become part-time education.

In this stage of development, of course, which is yet to be accomplished, not only an attempt must be made to solve the problem of the students' social status but the changes must also involve teaching programmes, the adaptation of education to practical needs and life, the social role of university study and other problems. It would not be sufficient if the reform was to

solve only the problem of the students' social status without making an attempt at solving some concomitant problems which currently burden education and schooling. One of the major successes of the reform is no doubt in that it has brought education nearer to the workshop and life in general. At secondary schools, great efforts are being made to work out competent curricula through which students would be adequately trained for their chosen vocation. The higher the level of education, the more difficult it is to say what 'adequate education' indeed means, what in fact will prepare the candidate for his future job and life.

The solution to this problem lies in making education and work a closely knit and intertwined process at educational levels above secondary school. Thus university study becomes entirely part-time study in the very sense of the word.

In this solution the answer is found to some claims of some foreign pedagogic researchers that the more the study time has been protracted, the more schooling has become an abstract structure estranged from real life. The greater the number of years spent at school, the looser are the contacts with the actual aims and objectives of the study themselves, the study has begun to be pursued for its own sake. With the years, also the motivation for education decreases; the candidates squeeze out of the educational process a bare minimum, as much as is absolutely necessary for the conclusion of their study, since for more they lack the motivation. The present-day needs for knowledge, however, call for maximum efficiency and more than that; it is not enough that one knows something, that one is able to reproduce certain facts; the criterion for successful education is that one is capable of using that knowledge in practical life, that one can apply the acquried knowledge. For this purpose part-time study is much more suitable whereas full-time study is less satisfactory in this respect.

It is expected that in the future part-time study will not be merely one of the possible alternatives available to the students, but will become the sole educational system supplemented

only by the previously concluded schooling and recurrent education.

The Development of Part-time Study in Yugoslavia from 1966 to 1975

The data compiled for the whole of Yugoslavia show some general trends in development. First of all it must be said that so far the development of part-time study has been rather irregular; there are considerable discrepancies between the institutions of higher education and colleges as to the number of enrolled part-time students as well as in the proportion of graduates.

The available data indicate that part-time study is in large measure a question of prestige as to the type of school and the social structure of part-time students (see Tables). Part-time study has had the fastest development at schools of higher education other than universities (4 semesters); the same has been true of institutions of advanced learning. The development at universities has been somewhat slower. As to the development of part-time study at the universities it has been found that the various disciplines have diverged and greatly differed. The lowest percentage of part-time students has been found at art academies. It seems that these institutions admit primarily talented individuals to exclusively full-time study.

The differences in the development of part-time study have also been due to the different degrees of complexity of the study and to the nature of the discipline. It can be said that there is practically no area of knowledge in which part-time study could not be organized (here belongs also the study of medicine, about which so many doubts have been voiced). The question, however, is by means of what methods and forms of work this can be attained. The differences between the data for individual institutions are by no means due to major differences between disciplines and thus cannot be attributed to them.

Among the graduates from two-year post-secondary institutions there are 75 per cent of part-time students and only in three instances (of the 19 listed types of such institutions) the

percentage of graduates from among part-time students drops below 20 (School of Chemistry and Technology, School of Marine Engineering, School of Statistics). In all the remaining institutions the proportion is much higher and includes about one-half of the students.

Two-year post-secondary institutions face a special situation. Some have been set up exclusively for part-time students (School of Political Sciences, which, however, is not included in our data); later on the number of part-time students has decreased in favour of full-time students. Two-year post-secondary institutions have always the ambition to become incorporated into a university; as a result, they endeavour to approach one way or another faculty standards and put emphasis on regular full-time study. The proportion of graduates from part-time study has ranged in recent years from 36 to 100 per cent (School of Economics).

In the light of the type of schools at which part-time study is most developed one can conclude that part-time study develops under the pressure of economic and societal needs.

The proportion of part-time students among university graduates ranges from 0.1 to 32 per cent. The highest percentage hardly reaches the lower limit of the hitherto discussed schools. The data reveal that part-time study programmes at the university have not developed in keeping with the needs of industry, but have developed where it was easier, because of the nature of the work, to shift from irregular studies to adult group studies. These are: Faculty of Law, Faculty of Economics, Faculty of Philology, Faculty of Political Sciences, and Faculty of Philosophy. Actual needs for personnel, however, demand that part-time study programmes be developed in the areas of technology, mathematics, and natural sciences, which, of course, would present a somewhat more complex problem.

The data under discussion are valid for the whole of Yugoslavia. In the summary data, however, sight was lost of some special problems which have appeared here and there at the universities as harbingers of a new development. In some places isolated islands of part-time education have sprung up. They have been

initiated by individual teachers who have brought in new ideas from their study abroad. Let us cite as an example from the University of Ljubljana where part-time study is best developed at the Faculty of Mechanical Engineering and the Faculty of Electrical Engineering, and less so where one would expect it from the nature of the disciplines. In this stage of the development of part-time study many varied forces and agencies have been at work. Part-time study has only recently become a well-rounded system.

So far we have had a look at the data for Yugoslavia by faculties, two-year post-secondary institutions, academies and higher level schools. We have seen that part-time study varies greatly in extent. It has shown a fast growth especially at some higher level schools and faculties. If, however, we have a look at the population of part-time students as a whole, we see that it grows only slowly. The number of part-time students at two-year post-secondary institutions and faculties has increased by 12 per cent between 1966 and 1975. The same increase has been observed in the number of graduates from among the ranks of part-time students in higher education.

There are considerable differences between the number of graduates from the ranks of part-time students at higher level schools or after 4 semesters at the university (38 per cent) on the one hand, and the number of graduates who have finished study at an institution of advanced learning or faculty (6 per cent). The reason for such a great difference seems to be in the fact that part-time study is better developed at higher level schools than at faculties. Some higher level schools have been set up exclusively for part-time study (School for Work Organization, School of Business, School for Transportation, School of Political Sciences). It has been only later that these schools have begun to enroll also full-time students. The differences are due also to subjective factors. Since for a student the attainment of a diploma of a higher level school is a rather short-term venture, it represents a much more attractive objective than a diploma that could be attained in an unknown number of years and with unpredictable difficulties.

Table 1

Part-time Study Graduates in Higher Education
(Percentage for 1966-1975)

	1966	1967	1968	1969	1970	1971	1972	1973	1974	1975
(A) FACULTIES:										
1. Philosophy	17	18	21	21	20	18	14	15	13	13
2. Philology	17	20	22	22	22	22	22	23	25	22
3. Natural Sciences and Mathematics	11	11	11	10	13	11	7	9	7	10
4. Architecture	3	0.9	1.3	5	4	3	2	2.7	2	3
5. Civil Engineering	0.3	-	1.2	0.9	2	0.6	0.3	1	1	0.9
6. Geodesy	1	1	5	-	2	10	3	1.8	-	6
7. Mechanical Engineering	0.3	0.4	2	3	2	1	2	3	2	4
8. Transportation Engineering	12	-	-	5	3	2	1	-	1	1
9. Electrical Engineering	0.5	0.3	1.5	-	0.7	1	0.2	0.7	1	1
10. Chemistry and Technology	0.3	2	2	1.4	1	1	0.7	0.3	2	2
11. Food Technology	9	8	3.8	7	0.9	2	2	4	2	-
12. Mining Engineering	0.8	0.8	7	0.9	0.8	3	2	12	7	4
13. Geology	-	1	5.6	6	2	4	-	1	2	3
14. Metallurgy	1	-	4	3	-	-	-	-	-	0.1
15. Agronomy	7	6	6.3	6	7	5	5	4	4	4
16. Forestry	2	5	3.7	7	3	3	7	1.	2	4
17. Veterinary Sciences	2	6	5	3	5	1	0.9	-	-	0.4

Table 1

Part-time Study Graduates in Higher Education
(Percentages for 1966-1975) (Cont'd)

	1966	1967	1968	1969	1970	1971	1972	1973	1974	1975
18. Economics	22	25	27	28	31	30	30	24	24	22
19. Law	42	46	43	38	42	41	39	35	33	32
20. Political Sciences	-	14	14	27	13	17	14	16	17	19
21. Medicine	0.2	0.4	0.07	0.1	0.07	0.1	-	0.1	-	-
22. Stomatology	5	5	2	2	4	2	8	7	3	4
23. Pharmacology	2	0.6	1	-	-	0.5	-	1.2	0.3	-
(B) ACADEMIES										
1. Academy of Arts	-	1	-	1	3	-	-	-	-	
2. Academy of Music	0.6	-	1	1.1	2.7	3	2	3	-	
3. Academy of Theatrical Arts (Theatre, Radio, Television)	24	11	2.9	5	8.6	21	10	9	-	
(C) FOUR-YEAR POST-SECONDARY INSTITUTIONS										
1. Defectology	21	54	54	66	73	76	48	-	-	
2. Physical Culture	23	16	28	47	33	24	45	45	36	
3. Economics	22	52	51	76	90	100	96	100	-	
4. Administration	55	56	50	73	68	72	72	75	78	
5. Political Sciences	27	19	33	2	-	-	-	-	-	

Table 1
Part-time Study Graduates in Higher Education
(Percentages for 1966-1975) (Cont'd)

	1966	1967	1968	1969	1970	1971	1972	1973	1974	1975
(D) TWO-YEAR POST-SECONDARY INSTITUTIONS										
1. Education	28	34	35	35	46	48	48	52	55	50
2. Pedagogical Academy	35	39	37	39	36	38	43	48	61	61
3. Defectology	-	-	59	54	48	52	57	64	56	71
4. Mechanical Engineering	17	25	31	39	55	37	33	42	36	38
5. Civil Engineering	8	17	6	14	22	33	31	40	44	39
6. Electrical Engineering	7	7	17	20	27	25	18	23	33	31
7. Chemistry and Technology	3	3	13	9	12	4	23	21	18	12
8. Food Technology	17	28	33	18	28	33	25	38	32	33
9. Marine Engineering	4	8	11	9.5	10	8	10	11	14	11
10. Agriculture	12	16	14	15	14	24	26	36	32	45
11. Economics	52	56	54	59	62	56	58	62	62	56
12. Accounting	72	71	74	76	79	79	78	69	73	75
13. Foreign Trade	55	49	39	53	48	69	64	49	66	63
14. Statistics	26	28	40	34	28	32	21	12	29	11
15. Administration	69	64	71	74	80	77	67	68	69	70
16. Law	54	66	42	73	56	41	57	53	51	49
17. Organization of Labour	-	-	8	51	32	45	47	43	30	26
18. Social Work	30	33	30	29	31	37	34	35	39	40
19. Nursing	54	68	55	52	50	55	52	60	65	57

Among part-time students an interesting study pattern has emerged. Quite a number of graduates from a higher level school enroll at a faculty, for they seem to think that it is simpler to attain a faculty diploma after they have finished a higher level school.

Conclusion

At the present time part-time study still represents the more difficult alternative road to a diploma. The opportunities offered by institutions of higher education in total vary greatly. By and large each student generation includes some 25 per cent of part-time students of which only every fourth or fifth graduates.

In various societal documents the potential social status of part-time study is put on a par with or is even higher than that of regular full-time study. In reality, however, part-time study still has a poor reputation among people and in some professional circles and represents an inferior alternative. This can be seen from the opinions so frequently encountered in practice. Such opinions are not encouraging, especially not for educational institutions which are to introduce part-time study into their teaching programmes or which are to further develop them.

There is also much uncertainty as to the criteria for the evaluation of the knowledge derived from part-time study. In practice, some cases have been found in which these criteria have been considerably laxer than those for regular study, especailly so at those schools at which the criteria for the evaluation of knowledge have been found to greatly differ from discipline to discipline in regular study. It has, however, also been reported that at some schools the criteria for the evaluation of knowledge acquired in part-time study is higher than usual "because part-time students prepare themselves for the examination more thoroughly, because they are better informed and have their own experiences as a result of which they can answer more demanding questions".

A considerable shortcoming of part-time study is lack of reliable criteria for the evaluation of the previously (also informally) acquired knowledge and experience. Therefore part-time study is frequently specious and becomes needlessly protracted. Another even worse consequence of the rudimentary criteria for evaluating the experience of adults is the refusal to introduce part-time study in the area of some natural sciences, technology, medicine, etc, where the teachers do not know how to tie in the required laboratory and other practical work with the experience of adults gained on the job. Here everything is judged from the point of view of regular full-time study and no attempt is made to devise teaching methods applicable to part-time students. By reason of all this some faculties still reject part-time study.

Experience shows that owing to some attending circumstances part-time study is still subject to social discrimination. It attracts primarily students coming from financially weak social strata, because it is cheaper, while it is looked at askance by students from the upper social strata on account of its low prestige.

Normatively, part-time study is promised a great future. There is, however, still a considerable difference between the normative pattern of part-time study and the actual practice in this area. Pedagogues will have to make great efforts in order to develop and transform this pattern of study into a general system of university studies. The development as a whole, however, depends on the interdisciplinary approach involving a number of specialists as well as on a revised attitude towards part-time study.

THE AUTHORS

Michal Bron jr.
Senior Research Assistant, Research Institute for Science Policy, Technological Progress and Higher Education, Warsaw, Poland

Agnieszka Bron-Wojciechowska
Senior Research Assistant, Department of Adult Education, Warsaw University, Warsaw, Poland

Prof. Alessandro Casiccia
Professor, Institute for Political Science, University of Turin, Turin, Italy

Bert Frederiksson
Researcher, University of Umeå, Umeå, Sweden

Armin Gretler
Director, Swiss Coordination Office for Education Research, Aarau, Switzerland

Peter Hammarberg
Director, People's University Head Office, Stockholm, Sweden

Per Himmelstrup
Director, South Jutland University Centre, Esbjerg, Denmark

Dr. Eva Hunold
Assistant Professor, Technological University Vallendar-Koblenz, Federal Republic of Germany

Dr. Bill Jones
Staff Tutor, Extra-Mural Department, University of Manchester, Manchester, U.K.

Dr. Ana Krajnc
Assistant Professor, Faculty of Education, University of Ljubljana, Yugoslavia

Wolfgang Krüger
Executive Director, Work Group for University Adult Education, Hannover, Federal Republic of Germany

Prof. Dr. Hans-Dietrich Raapke
Professor of Education, University of Oldenburg, Federal Republic of Germany

Prof. Dr. György Széll
Professor of Social Sciences, University of Osnabrück, Federal Republic of Germany

Wilfred Werner
General Secretary, People's University, Oslo, Norway